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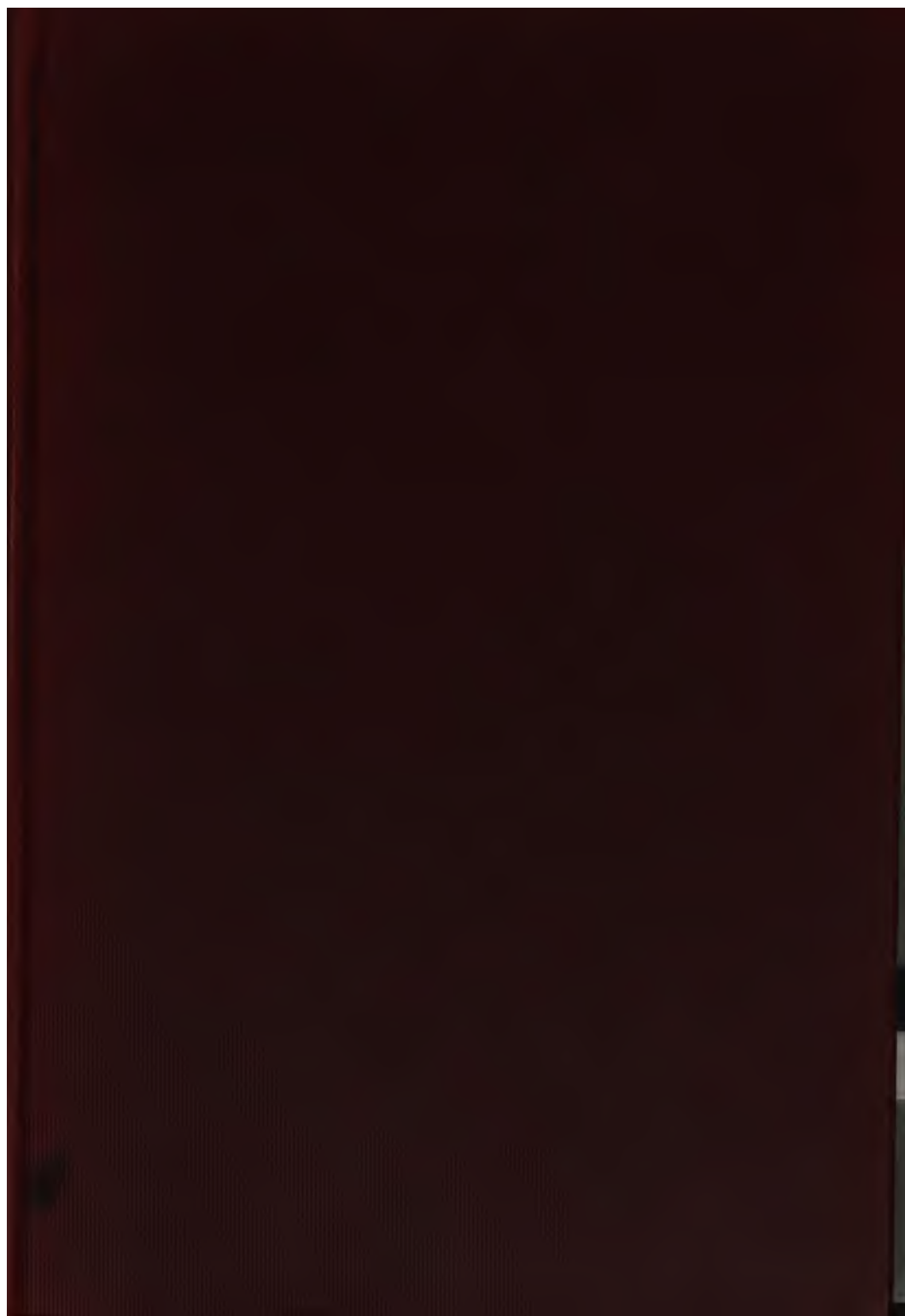
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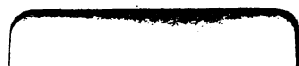


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RURAL SCHOOL SURVEY
of **NEW YORK STATE**

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RURAL SCHOOL SURVEY *of* NEW YORK STATE

A REPORT TO THE RURAL
SCHOOL PATRONS

By

THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON
RURAL SCHOOLS

GEORGE A. WORKS, *Chairman*

STANFORD JUN 6 1922

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FOREWORD

THIS summary of the New York State Rural School Survey is based on reports and recommendations that were made to the Joint Committee on Rural Schools by its survey staff. The directors of the six sections were asked to submit to the committee a statement of their most important findings, together with such recommendations as they deemed wise. These materials received careful consideration in the committee, and this volume contains such phases of the study as, in the judgment of the committee, would be of most assistance to the people of the state in arriving at decisions on the important problems affecting the rural schools. In addition, the committee has included such suggestions as it believes will help improve some of the conditions that were found. The committee does not believe that its recommendations are the final word.

In arriving at decisions on many of the questions involved, it has been assisted by the reactions of the rural school patrons at public meetings held in various sections of the state. The questionnaires which were submitted through the farm organizations were also of assistance. This volume is the result of the work of the survey staff, the reactions of rural school patrons, and the study by the committee of the numerous and complex problems involved. It is your committee's report to you. The committee invites constructive criticism.

Those persons who are interested in securing more complete data than are presented in this report, or who desire the reports of the directors of the various sections as they were made to the committee, will find at the end of this summary volume a complete list of the volumes published.

NOTE TO THE READER

Not all school patrons who have access to this report will have the time to read it in its entirety. Different individuals will be interested in different phases of the study, and in order to meet the needs

of all as fully as possible this fairly complete statement of conditions in the state has been prepared. In the judgment of the committee the most fundamental questions involved are:

1. OPTIONAL CONSOLIDATION OF SCHOOLS.
2. A BETTER PREPARED TEACHING PERSONNEL.
3. EQUITABLE DISTRIBUTION OF THE BURDEN OF SCHOOL SUPPORT.
4. A LARGER UNIT OF LOCAL ADMINISTRATION.

These subjects should have serious consideration. They are discussed in Chapters IV, XII, and XIII.

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RURAL SCHOOL SURVEY *of* NEW YORK STATE

CHAPTER I

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

THIS chapter is a brief presentation of the principal recommendations of the committee. They are not complete. For a concise statement of the data and reasons on which they are based the reader is referred to the several chapters of this report.

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

1. The committee recommends that the community be made the unit of local administration. In the formation of this new unit the present districts should continue and their boundaries remain as they are unless changed by a vote of the districts. (See p. 198.)

2. The board of education of the community unit should be constituted as follows:

- (a) Each common school district and each union free school district without an academic department to have one member.
- (b) A union free school district (or districts) with an academic department may determine the number of its representatives, not to exceed the number from the outlying districts in the unit.
- (c) This large board may delegate certain functions to a smaller group.
- (d) The community unit may adopt, by a majority vote, both of districts and of the people, one of the following organizations in lieu of the above:
 - I. Small board with equal number from country and union free school district or districts with academic departments.
 - II. Small board elected at large.

3. The repeal of the compulsory feature of the consolidation law is recommended.

4. Each community unit should make provision for four years of high school instruction, either within or without its bounds, and for transportation or suitable substitute wherever necessary, except when exempted by the intermediate board because of impracticability.

5. Community boundaries are to be determined by a commission of five appointed by the County Board of Supervisors from among those living under the rural education law.

6. There should also be a state commission, consisting of the Commissioner of Education and two members living under the rural education law, appointed by the Governor, to act as a board of appeal on boundary questions.

7. There should be a board for each supervisory district,¹ composed of one member from each community district, elected by the community board from its membership. (See p. 201.)

8. District superintendent shall be the professional officer of this board.

9. The State Commission on Community Boundaries shall determine the groupings of the community units into supervisory units, making provision for 208 of these units until 1926. After that date they shall determine the number of intermediate units¹ for the state.

10. The community board is to perform most of the functions in school control. Only where the welfare of the schools demands that larger groups act together is this power curtailed. The intermediate board serves the general function of keeping school control nearer the people by enabling them to solve many problems that now must, because of the organization, go to the state. The district superintendent becomes primarily the representative of the communities, not of the state.

11. The committee believes that the magnitude of rural education problems in the state makes it very important that the State Department of Education be provided with as effective an organization as possible for handling them. To this end it suggests that

¹ Supervisory district and intermediate unit are used interchangeably.

some arrangement be made within the State Department of Education by which original jurisdiction over elementary and secondary education and the training of rural school teachers be placed in the hands of some person directly responsible to the Commissioner of Education. The committee is of the opinion that this end would be best attained by an Assistant Commissioner of Rural Education, but if the Board of Regents can devise a more effective method, it would be regarded as acceptable.

SCHOOL SUPPORT

1. The community unit shall be the unit of local taxation for school purposes.

General Aid

2. In providing for the general support of schools on the part of the state recognition should be given to:

- (a) The ability of communities to provide school facilities.
- (b) The willingness of communities to provide school facilities.

As a means of attaining these ends it is recommended that state aid be distributed according to the formula $(\$290,000 - V) M \times T \times .626$, for districts below the median¹ valuation. (In this formula V stands for equalized valuation, expressed in thousands of dollars, M for the equalized tax-rate in mills, and T for the number of teachers in the unit.)

In the application of this formula every community below the median shall receive at least \$48 per teacher.

In the application of this formula the maximum amount of general aid to be granted by the state shall not exceed the amount obtained when the number of mills reaches 10.

In districts above the median equalized valuation the following arbitrary grants shall be made:

EQUALIZED VALUATION PER TEACHER	
Less than \$300,000.....	\$48
\$300,000-399,000.....	40
\$400,000-499,000.....	32
\$500,000-599,000.....	24
\$600,000-699,000.....	16
\$700,000-799,000.....	8

¹ Average.

3. No school shall be entitled to the full amount of aid provided for under this plan unless it has an average daily attendance of eight pupils. Any school that falls below this number shall be granted only such proportion of its allotment as its average daily attendance bears to the standard denominator eight. Thus a school with an average daily attendance of five would receive only $\frac{5}{8}$ of the allotment which it would receive had it the full quota of eight. The board of education of the intermediate unit should have the authority to waive the application of this rule in those schools which, in its judgment, should, under present circumstances, as regards condition of roads, distance, etc., be retained as separate schools in order to promote the best interests of pupils attending them. This privilege should also apply in cases in which weather conditions, epidemics, etc., interfere with school attendance. All cases of exemption shall be approved by the State Department of Education.

4. The quota for high school teachers should be \$400 greater than that for elementary school teachers in all districts having an equalized valuation of less than \$350,000 per teacher.

Special Aid

5. Aid shall be granted for the erection of schoolhouses and teacherages on the following basis:

Districts having an equalized valuation per teacher of less than—

\$50,000.....	30	percent	of	cost	of	building	and	equipment
50,000-\$99,000.....	25	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
100,000-149,000.....	20	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
150,000-199,000.....	15	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
200,000-249,000.....	10	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
250,000-299,000.....	5	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
300,000-over.....	0	"	"	"	"	"	"	"

These buildings are to be erected in accordance with plans approved by the State Department of Education.

6. A similar form of aid should be granted to districts for the making of major improvements to buildings, such as would be considered outlays within the rules of the State Department of Education, and in amount according to the plan proposed above.

7. In order to assist districts in bearing the expenses of transportation it is recommended that for each \$1200 of transportation expense, the number of teachers used in determining the amount of aid should be increased by one. If a community unit had six teachers and a transportation expense of \$1200, it would be considered as having seven teachers in the multiplication of the four factors used in determining amount of aid, but not in determining the equalized valuation per teacher. In case of an expenditure of less than \$1200 the expense should be pro-rated on the basis of \$1200.

8. To induce competent teachers to go into the one-teacher schools a direct grant of \$20 per month should be made to a teacher who teaches in a one-teacher school and who belongs to either one of the following groups:

- (a) A normal school graduate or equivalent with three years of teaching experience.
- (b) A graduate of one of the rural teacher training departments of the normal school, as provided for in the section on preparation of teachers. (See p. 69.)

9. In order to discourage the appointment of teachers of inferior qualifications, it is recommended that a graduated series of deductions from the state aid be devised so that for each teacher of inferior qualifications that is appointed the apportionment will be reduced by \$100; the second time the same teacher is appointed the deduction should be \$200, and so on.

10. It is recommended that there be state aid to the intermediate unit to the extent of two-thirds the salary of the superintendent, and of his assistants up to certain maximum amounts to be fixed by law and regulation of the State Department of Education.

Bonded Indebtedness

11. It is impossible to devise a plan for taking care of the bonded indebtedness that will be perfectly fair to every situation that exists in the state. It seems best, since all the school property within the community unit becomes the property of the community, that the community assume the bonded indebtedness. The committee believes that, as a means of adjusting the situation, where bonds are outstanding on buildings completed in the last five years, the

community unit should receive aid from the state in accordance with the suggested state aid for new buildings.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORS

1. There should be developed a strong *rural school department or division* in each of the existing state normal schools, these departments to be established as rapidly as the demand for those seeking training will warrant and as fast as they can be properly organized. These departments should be in charge of directors who are specialists in the preparation of rural school teachers. Associated with each director there should be a staff of instructors, for the appointment of whom familiarity with rural school and rural life conditions should be an important qualification. The curriculum for the preparation of rural school teachers should be distinct and separate from the normal school curricula designed for urban teachers, and, although some of the work may well be done in the same classes, the rural school group should have its own quarters, its own organization, and the fullest opportunity to develop a thoroughgoing professional zeal and purpose. Closely associated with each rural school department there should be a group of neighboring rural schools. These should form the chief "laboratory" of the rural school department. The teachers of these outlying schools should have demonstrated their ability to do expertly well the work that the rural school involves. They should be paid in part by the state and should have recognition as members of the normal school staff. At the same time they should be thoroughly acceptable as teachers to the local communities in which their schools are located.

2. To make possible a selection of the best available talent, and to keep the teaching positions in the rural schools open to young people from the open-country homes that have heretofore supplied the teachers of the one-teacher schools, a system of state scholarships should be provided. These should be open only to high school graduates who rank with the upper half or two-thirds of their high school classes. In addition, the most scientific means possible should be used in determining their adaptability to teaching. Besides these personal and educational qualifications, they must

have lived for at least two years in a rural community as defined by the Federal census. Such scholarships should provide tuition while attending an approved course, and an allowance of \$200 per year while away from home. The acceptance of a scholarship should be in the form of a pledge to serve, following graduation, for at least three years in the rural schools of the state. In case the holder of a university scholarship obtains a teaching scholarship, he shall be entitled to both if in attendance at any institution offering a course approved for the training of rural school teachers.

3. In order to provide opportunities for continuous growth upon the part of rural school teachers, the rural school departments of the normal schools should organize Saturday classes at convenient centers, and should also provide summer courses. This work should be designed still further to improve the teachers in the work of rural education, and the successful completion of such courses should qualify the teacher for salary advances, as is now the policy in progressive city school systems.

4. Provision should also be made in competent state institutions for special courses for supervisory officers, to the end that these officers may be qualified to provide competent help for teachers in service.

5. It is suggested that after 1927 no new teachers shall be admitted to service in the elementary rural schools who have not completed a course in one of the state normal schools or the equivalent, such courses to be specifically designed to prepare for service in the rural schools.

6. During the period that it is necessary for high school training classes to be maintained it is proposed that the expense of such classes be borne by the state. This will necessitate complete control of the location, selection of teachers, and work done in these classes by the State Department of Education.

7. A special division of the State Department of Education should be organized to have, among other functions, administrative charge of the education of rural school teachers. This division should supervise the rural training departments of the state normal schools, both as to the preparation that they provide for prospective rural teachers and as to the extension and summer courses that they offer

to teachers in service. *It should be particularly charged with responsibility for keeping the work of these departments close to the rural school problem.*

COURSES OF STUDY FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

1. New courses of study should be prepared for the rural schools. The present courses are largely out of date and not suited to rural school conditions and needs. In preparation of the new courses these weaknesses should be avoided, and they should be prepared in keeping with modern standards, modern principles, and modern practices. It is suggested that special attention be given to reading.

2. The present system of examinations should be changed to accord with modern standards in content and method, and to permit and foster the development of local initiative.

3. In the formulation of the new courses of study provision should be made for freely drawing on the experience of those in teaching and supervisory positions in the schools.

4. Provision should be made for keeping the courses up to date, and in accord with the results of research and experience.

5. Education is to produce specific changes in individual pupils. The curriculum is a means to that end. What these changes are vary with the individual and the community. The content of the courses of study and the method of procedure will vary more or less in different schools in the state. Common courses for all schools, whether in country or city, evidently will not be best for both.

REGENTS EXAMINATIONS

1. The responsibility for the determination of the examinations to be used and the certification of pupils should rest with local school authorities, under the general supervision of the professional officer of the intermediate unit. This recommendation is made with the understanding that it will not go into effect until the minimum standards for entrance to the teaching service become operative, and until the reorganization of the intermediate unit is accomplished.

2. The State Department of Education should provide a staff with service and research functions in the field of educational

measurement more nearly adequate, to coöperate with local and intermediate rural school officers.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS

1. Each community should study earnestly its school building situation, to the end that wherever necessary better provision may be made because the community *believes improvement necessary*.

2. In order that children may not suffer because of the neglect of apathetic communities, the present law dealing with minimum standards should be made more clear, the standards should be raised to comply more nearly with modern hygienic requirements, and the standards should be made applicable, after a specified period, to all schoolhouses in the state.

3. The state should give financial assistance to those communities that cannot meet the minimum standards without undue effort and also grant a bonus to those that exceed these standards. (See pp. 248-250.)

HIGH SCHOOLS

1. The purposes or objectives of rural secondary education should be defined as clearly and specifically as possible. As a means of assisting in this work it would be desirable for those responsible for the administration of the high schools on the part of the state to utilize the services of an advisory committee composed of lay and professional people.

2. When the objectives are defined, it would seem desirable to revise the curricula in the light of them. Problems deserving consideration are the status of the foreign languages, general science, intermediate algebra, advanced algebra, trigonometry, and vocational guidance.

3. It is generally admitted that efficient home making is of basic importance in the welfare of the home and of good citizenship. For this reason, and the further fact that a large percentage of the girls who attend high school will follow the vocation of home making, it is recommended that the desirability of establishing courses in home making in every rural high school in the state receive consideration. It is suggested that such courses be so enriched and broadened as to meet in the fullest possible manner the home and community needs. Students should be encouraged to take such

courses and they should receive credit on the same basis as academic subjects. Emphasis should be given to the problem of getting colleges to accept work in this subject toward admission.

4. The problems of teacher training for the rural high schools and of certification of teachers should receive further consideration.

5. The organization of junior high schools as the first unit in secondary education in the rural communities should be encouraged. As a means to this end it is recommended that the state aid granted for teachers in these schools should be on the same basis as for regular high schools.

COMMUNITY RELATIONS

1. Because school work in the main is limited to routine classroom activity, greater attention should be given to providing, as a part of school work, additional extra-curricular activities, such as entertainments, school fairs, exhibits, and plays.

2. In every rural district of the state there should be developed a live interest of adults for the advancement of education. This interest may either take the form of separate organizations for school betterment, as parent-teacher associations and school improvement leagues, or be focused in the work of a special education committee under some organization not exclusively educational, as the grange or farm and home bureau.

3. The curricula for the preparation of rural teachers, principals, and district superintendents should provide suitable preparation for this phase of school work. The nature of this work is such that preparation for it cannot be accomplished by a few additions to a training course. To be efficient here, demands attention to the problem throughout the course.

4. In view of the larger responsibility of the district superintendent for the leadership of rural folk it is advised that personal qualifications for such service, other than professional preparation, be taken into consideration in his selection.

5. In order that the above activities may be more fully realized provision should be made for this work:

(a) In providing school buildings and equipment.

(b) In the type of service rendered by the State Department of Education to the school forces of the state.

CHAPTER II

THE WORK OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE

ORIGIN OF THE SURVEY

TO UNDERSTAND the origin of this study it is necessary to have in mind an outline of the rural school situation in New York state. The district system of schools was established in the state by legislative enactment in 1812. It has been the agency for the conduct of local administrative functions relating to the school from that time on, except for an interval of one year. In this interim the township system was in operation. The legislation providing for this change came without adequate preparation of the people for what it meant. This fact, combined with a number of other complicating factors, such as rapidly mounting school costs, a compulsory physical education act, and weaknesses in the law itself, aroused so much antagonism that the result was the speedy repeal indicated.

There were progressive farmers in the state who realized that the district organization was not able to cope with the modern demands for education. The views of these men and women became evident during the 1920 Farmers' Week at the New York State College of Agriculture. It has been customary for the Department of Rural Education to conduct conferences dealing with rural school questions during Farmers' Week. These conferences have given primary consideration to those phases of rural education that were of concern to the school patron. In 1920 the theme that ran throughout the conference was, "What can be done for the improvement of rural schools in New York State?" Rural school patrons, teachers, and superintendents participated in these discussions. The last afternoon was given to an address by Dr. John H. Finley, then Commissioner of Education, and to a forum dis-

cussion of the rural school situation. Toward the close of this session a resolution was passed calling for a study of the various problems involved.

Since this was an informal conference, it is doubtful if any material result would have come from this resolution. The following day a similar resolution was passed by the Conference Board of Farm Organizations. This board is made up of the executive committees of the following organizations: State Grange, State Farm Bureau Federation, Dairymen's League, and the state horticultural societies. In this action concrete evidence was furnished of what New York state has witnessed several times in recent years, the value of organization as a means of putting the farm people in position to make their influence felt. The passing of the resolution by this group gave the movement a status that would have been impossible for it to obtain otherwise without a large expenditure of time and energy.

There were some minor differences between the resolution passed by the Conference Board of Farm Organizations and the Rural Education conference. When these differences were adjusted, the resolution was transmitted to each organization that was asked to participate. Each responded by the appointment of three members, as was suggested in the resolution. The result was a committee consisting of representatives from the Dairymen's League, State Grange, State Home Bureau Federation, State Farm Bureau Federation, Department of Rural Education of the New York State College of Agriculture, State Teachers' Association, and the State Department of Education. Each of these organizations determined in its own way the method of selecting its representatives. Furthermore, the organizations bore the expenses of their representatives in attending the meetings. The result was that each group entered the committee without obligations to any one except its organization, in its endeavors to get at the facts with reference to rural school conditions in the state.

PRINCIPLES THAT GUIDED THE COMMITTEE

At its first meeting the committee laid down the following principles, which have guided its action:

1. It determined that it would make such suggestions as it finally offered on the basis of facts so far as it was practicable for it to obtain them. It was evident to every member of the committee that there was no other safe way to proceed.

2. The committee was also in accord upon the importance of obtaining from rural school patrons their suggestions regarding problems that needed consideration and their judgment as to how these could most wisely be met.

3. There was complete agreement on the importance of giving to the public the largest possible opportunity to discuss the findings and recommendations of the committee.

SOURCE OF FUNDS

At the time of its organization the committee was without funds for its work, except that the various organizations were paying the expenses of their representatives when in attendance at committee meetings. Later the directors of the Commonwealth Fund of New York city made available a sum of money for the expenses of the actual conduct of the survey. The possibility of funds being made available from this source was due to action that had been taken by George M. Wiley, Assistant Commissioner for Elementary Education. Independently of the organization of the committee Dr. Wiley had approached the directors of the fund with the idea of interesting them in a study of the rural schools of the state. When the committee organized, there was no certainty of financial assistance from this source. Later, as has been indicated, funds were placed at the disposal of the Board of Regents for the survey. As the State Department of Education was represented on the committee, arrangements were made by which "the responsibility for determining the direction and scope of the survey" was placed with the committee. At that time the director and his assistants were chosen.

REACTIONS OF PATRONS

A division of the survey was organized specifically to secure reactions from rural school patrons on rural school problems. The director of this section prepared and distributed among groups of rural people a pamphlet containing questions that the directors of

other sections were desirous of having discussed by lay groups. Thousands of these were submitted to groups over the state. Those receiving them were invited to discuss the suggested questions and such others as they felt to be of importance. The pamphlets were so organized that suggestions could easily be incorporated.

As soon as the committee had a rough outline of the scope of its study prepared, the director of the section dealing with publicity arranged for a series of "hearings" in different sections of the state. These meetings were so located as to be reasonably accessible to the people from several counties. General invitations were issued to all to attend. Special efforts were made to secure the attendance of school trustees, representatives of local granges, members of Farm and Home Bureau groups, and other farm organizations. In general, the attendance at these meetings was good. In some cases as many as 500 or 600 were present. The meetings were a day in length and were devoted to a presentation of some of the principal features of the survey by representatives of the committee. Approximately one-half of the time was devoted to open discussion of questions suggested from the floor.

When the committee had secured a body of facts and arrived at some recommendations, the character of the meetings was changed. The number of formal presentations was reduced to two or three. These usually consisted of statements of findings and recommendations. Each was followed by discussion. These meetings have been of very material assistance to the committee because of the suggestions that have been offered regarding its proposals. They are still in progress and will, undoubtedly, continue for some time.

SUGGESTIONS ARE INVITED

As a final step, this brief statement of findings and recommendations is submitted for further consideration. The committee hopes that it may serve as the basis of discussion in hundreds of meetings throughout the state. Ample evidence is submitted in this volume of the need of improvement of the rural schools, unless thousands of country children in the state are to take up their life-work with decided handicaps as a result of the poor rural school facilities that obtain very generally in the state. The largest single educational

problem in the state is that of equalization of educational opportunity for the country child as contrasted with the child who lives in a city or village of the state. This equalization should come not by lowering the standards in urban centers, but by the gradual development of more adequate schools for the open country. To this end the committee invites constructive criticism from every source. It is a problem that should challenge the best thought of every citizen who has at heart the future welfare of his state.

CHAPTER III

ORGANIZATION OF THE SURVEY

SCOPE

UNDER the laws of New York state schools in places of less than 4500 are classed as rural. In the organization of the survey the legal definition was taken in determining the schools to be included. The survey, therefore, covers the work of elementary schools in the open country and of elementary and secondary schools in places under 4500 population. Comparative data from city schools are used in certain portions of the study. Consideration was given to the state schools of agriculture, and also to Junior Extension work, which is conducted jointly by the State Department of Education and the State College of Agriculture. These were included because of their intimate relation to the educational problem of the open country. A study was also made of the State Department of Education in its relation to the rural schools.

PERSONNEL

The survey was organized in seven sections, with a director in charge of each. The sections and directors were:

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

C. H. Judd, Director of the School of Education, University of Chicago.

TEACHER PREPARATION AND CURRICULA

W. C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University.

RURAL SCHOOL BUILDINGS

J. E. Butterworth, Department of Rural Education, Cornell University.

THE EDUCATIONAL PRODUCT

M. E. Haggerty, Dean of the College of Education, University of Minnesota.

SUPPORT OF THE SCHOOLS

Harlan Updegraff, School of Education, University of Pennsylvania.

COMMUNITY RELATIONS OF THE SCHOOLS

Mabel Carney, Teachers College, Columbia University.

REACTIONS OF RURAL SCHOOL PATRONS

E. R. Eastman, Dairymen's League.

Associated with these directors were the following persons who were responsible for certain phases of each section:

THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL

E. N. Ferriss, Department of Rural Education, Cornell University.

The phases relating to administration and supervision of the high schools were developed in coöperation with Dr. Judd, and the teaching personnel and curriculum problems were worked out with Dr. Bagley.

THE SUPERVISORY DISTRICT AND THE DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENCY

F. D. Brooks, Baylor University.

THE SCHOOL DISTRICT

T. H. Shelby, University of Texas.

PRINCIPLES OF ADMINISTRATION, STATE AND LOCAL

J. F. Bobbitt, School of Education, University of Chicago.

THE STATE SYSTEM OF EXAMINATIONS

P. J. Kruse, Department of Rural Education, Cornell University.

JUNIOR EXTENSION

ADMINISTRATION OF THE STATE SCHOOLS OF AGRICULTURE

E. L. Holton, State College of Agriculture, Manhattan, Kansas.

THE COMMUNITY UNIT

G. A. Works, Department of Rural Education, Cornell University.

MEDICAL INSPECTION AND HEALTH EDUCATION

E. A. Peterson, Cuyahoga County Public Health Association.

The above aspects were placed under the section dealing with administration and supervision, and were developed in coöperation with Dr. Judd.

CURRICULUM OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

O. G. Brim, Department of Rural Education, Cornell University.

CURRICULA AND INSTRUCTION IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

T. H. Eaton, Department of Rural Education, Cornell University.

These phases belonged to the section on teacher preparation and were studied under the direction of Dr. Bagley.

In connection with the work in educational measurement, J. Cayce Morrison, of the State Department of Education, was responsible, under Dr. Haggerty's direction, for the selection and organization of the field force.

Dwight Sanderson, of the Department of Rural Social Organization, Cornell University, furnished data that were of material assistance in connection with the study on the community unit.

The summaries of the most important phases of these studies are included in this volume. Those interested in the full report or in phases not included in this summary are referred to the complete reports, a list of which is given in the back of this volume.

METHOD OF STUDY

After the directors of the sections were chosen, a conference was held in which agreement was reached on the field to be covered by each section, so that duplications were avoided or reduced to a minimum. The survey staff then presented its plans for the whole study to the committee for suggestions and approval.

In addition to the directors of each section and the limited num-

ber of workers that some of them brought into the state, between 150 and 200 persons engaged in school work in the state were utilized in the study. For example, the scoring of school buildings was done almost entirely by a selected group of district superintendents after careful training for the task. For other sections persons were secured from normal schools, village and city superintendents, high school principalships, Teachers College, and Syracuse and Cornell universities.

Abundance of evidence is at hand in unsolicited letters that were received from these field workers to show the value they received from the work. The beneficial influence on their work in the school system cannot be questioned. The following excerpts will make clear the viewpoint of several of them:

"This has been a wonderfully interesting piece of work; in fact, I consider it as helpful as a course at any good summer school."

"The survey will, I trust, help the schools directly; but if it does nothing else, it has opened the eyes of the *surveyors* to some conditions that will react on their own efforts in the training of teachers. I thank you for this eye-opener."

"The survey was illuminating to me. I know rural schools pretty well, but I confess that I had never suspected the poverty of the teaching. I should thank you for the opportunity to participate in this survey, as it was a week of growth for me—a widening of the skyline."

Superintendents and teachers found the contacts with the field workers stimulating, as is shown by letters that they voluntarily sent to the director. One district superintendent wrote: "Miss — and I have just completed three very hard but profitable days in the rural schools of my district. I tried in every way to have her see all the different problems in my schools. I consider it a privilege to have a worker in my district of her caliber, I know that I obtained some worthwhile suggestions from her."

Another superintendent who had a field worker from one of the normal schools suggested that he had been so much benefited that he wished it might be made an annual feature. Enough evidence of this character has been submitted so that the committee is convinced that, regardless of legislation, such as it hopes eventually

to see enacted, the reawakening that has come among rural school patrons, the stimulation of interest and broadening of vision on the part of those engaged in the teaching profession, have been worth much more to the state than all time and money expended.

SELECTION OF AREAS FOR STUDY

In planning the survey it was recognized that since it would be impossible to reach every school in the state, it was extremely desirable to select schools of representative areas. With such factors as topography, types of farming, the problems of nationality, transportation facilities, and the contrasting problems presented by urban and rural conditions in mind, the state was divided into seven areas. The study was so organized that data were secured by each section of the survey from each of these regions. Within these areas the different sections of the survey were so arranged that the amount of overlapping in territory covered was very small. This arrangement made it possible to reach every county in the state with some section of the survey, and in case of the larger counties, two or more supervisory districts were included. By this means many persons, both lay and professional, were put in contact with the work.

For the sections on administration, school support, and school buildings, three counties—Delaware, Tompkins, and Monroe—were selected for intensive study, in addition to the data gathered for these sections from other parts of the state. This was done to furnish the material for application of the proposed changes to specific communities. These illustrations are included in the chapter on school support. It was felt that the application of the proposed changes to representative communities would give concreteness to the committee's suggestions.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Acknowledgment should be made to district superintendents of schools, the great majority of whom willingly coöperated with the committee in this study, to thousands of school trustees who answered questions relating to the local administration of the

schools and on school support, to thousands of teachers for furnishing information, and to the many thousands of patrons who have taken an active part in the discussion of the numerous questions involved and given the committee the benefit of their suggestions.

The committee is also indebted to the following persons for liberal contributions of time and professional service to the phases of the survey indicated. Without this coöperation the survey as carried forward would have been impossible.

MEASUREMENT OF SCHOOL PROGRESS

Westchester County

Field Director, R. G. Reynolds, Columbia University

Assistants:	G. D. Smith,	"	"
	S. L. Clement,	"	"
	J. J. Weber,	"	"
	J. L. Holst,	"	"
	M. S. Pittman,	"	"

Otsego County

Field Director, H. Pillsbury, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, Buffalo

Assistants:	C. M. Hagel, State College for Teachers, Albany
	J. H. Cook, " " " " "
	A. E. Fitzelle, Oneonta Normal School
	A. E. Scott, " " "
	E. V. Beebe, New Paltz " "

Tompkins and Cayuga Counties

Field Director, P. J. Kruse, Cornell University

Assistants:	C. W. Barr,	"	"
	B. L. Brown,	"	"
	Helen M. Bateman,	"	"
	Edna J. Krentz,	"	"
	W. W. Reitz,	"	"

Erie County

Field Director, C. C. Root, Buffalo Normal School

Assistants:	M. J. Durney,	"	"	"
	I. L. Kempky,	"	"	"
	E. S. Smith,	"	"	"
	S. F. Chase,	"	"	"
	A. M. W. Ensel, Brockport Normal School			
	J. F. Phillips, Buffalo Normal School			

Wayne County

Field Director, L. A. Peckstein, University of Rochester

Assistants: L. Savage, " " "
J. G. Hendrickson, " " "
O. E. Reynolds, " " "
M. B. Furman, District Superintendent, Monroe County
W. C. Trow, University of Rochester

Oswego County

Field Director, M. A. May, University of Syracuse

Assistants: L. Vandenburg, Oswego Normal
M. C. Richardson, Geneseo Normal
M. Odell, Oswego Normal
L. E. Brown, Cortland Normal
E. M. Van Housen, Cortland Normal
C. L. Sweeting, University of Syracuse

St. Lawrence County

Field Director, A. J. Williams, Superintendent of Schools, Lake Placid

Assistants: K. E. Hull, Plattsburg Normal
J. C. Johnson, Potsdam Normal
P. M. Noyes, " "
E. M. French, " "
M. D. Cousins, " "
F. G. Leitzell, " "
K. L. Malloy, Plattsburg Normal

SCHOOL BUILDINGS

F. H. Wood, State Department of Education
R. M. Stewart, Cornell University
W. W. Reitz, " "
T. L. Bayne, " "

District Superintendents

J. D. Jones	H. W. Dyer	W. T. Clark
E. A. Stratton	T. C. Perry	V. C. Warriner
Mabelle L. Rodger	S. C. Kimm	Lou Messenger
J. G. Pratt	Mrs. G. L. De Oloquo	R. W. Eldridge
W. C. King	A. W. Trainor	C. B. Earl
Mary L. Isbell	I. S. Sears	Winifred Morrow
Clara E. Soden	M. B. Furman	C. S. Hick
M. G. Rickey	G. G. Steele	F. A. Beardsley
M. G. Nelson	L. J. Cook	Hattie K. Buck
F. O. Green	C. W. Smith	J. D. Bigelow
W. E. Pierce	Harrison Cossart	Mrs. Rose Minnick
Myrtle E. MacDonald	Mrs. Adelaide W. Gardner	R. D. Knapp
	G. H. Stratton	

SCHOOL SUPPORT

J. A. Bock, State Department of Public Instruction, Pennsylvania
J. D. Brooks, University of Pennsylvania
J. E. Butterworth, Cornell University
L. A. King, University of Pennsylvania
H. C. Case, State Department of Education, New York
Alice J. McCormick, State Department of Education, New York

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

H. V. Littell, Principal of Schools, Saranac Lake
H. W. Langworthy, Superintendent of Schools, Oneida
W. H. Lynch, State Normal School, Oneonta
E. D. Hewes, Superintendent of Schools, Beacon
E. J. Bonner, City Normal, Rochester
R. L. Countryman, State Normal School, Geneseo
L. H. Vandenburg, State Normal School, Oswego
G. B. Jeffers, City Training School, Schenectady
Frances H. Killen, Supervisor, Dunkirk
F. B. Matheson, State Normal School, New Paltz
Arthur Curtis, State Normal School, Oneonta
Inez Ahles, Supervisor, Binghamton

INSTRUCTION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Catherine Hayes, State Normal School, Oswego
Mabel W. Vanderhoof, State Normal School, Brockport
C. W. Shallies, State Normal School, Plattsburg
Marion Forsythe, State Normal School, Potsdam
Fannie W. Dunn, Teachers College, New York
Adelaide M. Ayer, " " " "
Abbie Day, " " " "

INSTRUCTION IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS

S. C. Farrior, Teachers College
C. P. Finger, Teachers College
J. M. Sayles, Albany, N. Y.
E. W. Spry, Webster, N. Y.
P. J. Kruse, Cornell University
T. H. Eaton, " "

INSTRUCTION IN VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS

Miss H. N. Estabrook	F. W. Lathrop
Mrs. L. V. Walker	W. W. Reitz
Mrs. E. D. Bentley	H. B. Knapp
I. M. Charlton	

REGENTS EXAMINATION SYSTEM

A. W. Skinner, State Department of Education

C. F. Wheelock, " " " "

W. H. McClelland, Perry, New York

T. L. Bayne, Cornell University

COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Dwight Sanderson, Cornell University

Rosamond Root, Teachers College

The director wishes to acknowledge the complete coöperation of the State Department of Education and desires to mention especially the cordial support given by Frank B. Gilbert when he was Acting Commissioner of Education, and by Dr. Frank P. Graves since he has entered upon his duties as commissioner. Without this assistance many phases that have been included would have been impossible to cover, and all aspects would have been very much more difficult of accomplishment.

He is under heavy obligation to the members of the Joint Committee, and especially to his associates on the subcommittee that directed the survey. A statement of acknowledgments would be quite incomplete without including a recognition of the invaluable assistance that was rendered by the director's colleagues in the Department of Rural Education in Cornell University. He is under special obligation to the following for advice and assistance in the organization of the survey and in the preparation of this report: J. E. Butterworth, O. G. Brim, T. H. Eaton, E. N. Ferriss, P. J. Kruse, R. M. Stewart, and W. F. Lusk.

CHAPTER IV

THE RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION

“**A**S IS the teacher, so is the school.” Like most other sweeping statements, this is only a partial truth, but the element of truth in it is fundamental. Good school buildings and good equipment, important as they are, cannot make up for the deficiencies of teaching. Organization, administration, and supervision exist primarily for the purpose of making good teaching possible. The “curriculum” of studies and activities is of basic significance, and exceptional individuals, working independently with a good program of studies, have often achieved what would be admitted by all as a “good education”; yet such individuals are far from numerous, and whatever self-guidance may do for an adult, it is clear that the immature learner, however “bright,” needs the direction of a teacher to make even the best curriculum fully effective. It is through no mere accident, then, that the character, personality, attainments, and skill of the teacher are still looked upon as the fundamental factors in education, despite the great progress that has been made in the provision of books, pictures, maps, models, apparatus, and other devices for making easier the mastery of knowledge and skill.

Undoubtedly the most serious handicap that the rural child encounters in his school education as compared with the city child is to be found in the teaching personnel of the rural schools. This is far from saying that there are no competent teachers in these schools. It is only to say that rural school teachers as a group are more immature, far more inexperienced, less well educated, less well prepared professionally for their work, and very much less well supervised than are city teachers as a group. In consequence, the

chances that the child living in the open country will have a competent teacher are very small as compared with the chances that the city child has.

To take an example, namely, that of the professional preparation of the teacher: The minimum of such training for elementary school teaching is generally recognized to be two years of work beyond high school graduation. The country child in New York State who attends a one-teacher school has one chance in twenty of coming under the instruction of a teacher who has met this minimal standard; the child living in a village has more than one chance in four of having such a teacher; while the child living in a typical city of the third class has less than one chance in five of *not having* such a teacher.

The country child is similarly handicapped in respect to the maturity of his teachers. Again there are some rural school teachers who are old enough to have acquired maturity of judgment—a few, indeed, who are probably too old to teach well. Yet the country child attending a one-teacher school runs one chance in four of having a teacher who is not yet old enough to vote, although charged with a responsibility beside which the responsibility of the individual ballot is a mere bagatelle. The city child has less than one chance in ten of having one of these immature teachers. Age and experience go together, of course, and both are recognized, within certain limits, as contributing to the efficiency of the teacher. The country child in New York state has one chance in five of coming under the instruction of a teacher who is just beginning his or her work; the city child's chances are in the ratio of one to ten—just half the risk. The country child has one chance in six of having a teacher with at least ten years' experience; the city child's chances are multiplied by three—the ratio being one in two.

It is true that the training, age, and experience of the teacher are only rough measures of the efficiency of a school. It is true that a girl of eighteen, just out of high school, may do excellent work in her first position in an unsupervised rural school. But it is generally agreed that these cases are very exceptional, and that the measure provided by training, age, and experience, although a rough measure, can safely be trusted when one is attempting to evaluate the work

of so large a group of teachers as that represented by the rural schools of New York state.

In the following pages an effort will be made to set forth these and other significant facts regarding the teachers of the rural schools. The information here reported has been gathered chiefly through a question-sheet which was distributed by the district superintendents in a selected number of counties that represent in the aggregate the important rural areas of the state. The number of returns from each county is shown by Table 1. Approximately 2500 (2497) replies are included in the tabulations that follow. The report, then, is not based upon a complete census of the rural school teachers. The total number of such teachers in the state is approximately 10,000. The findings, however, may be taken as typical of the teachers in areas predominantly rural, and in many cases we shall speak as though all teachers in these areas were included. This generalization is justified because the selection is obviously "random," and statistical practice has demonstrated that, when a goodly number of cases taken at random are considered, the results are not appreciably altered when a very large number of cases are added. We had the opportunity to test this principle by tabulating certain items in more than 200 late returns; the conclusions from the first 2500 were not in any significant way affected thereby. Furthermore, in so far as the facts regarding the rural group are concerned,¹ the findings "check" satisfactorily with a similar, although not identical, study of the teachers of the state made under the direction of the State Education Department three years ago.

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION BY COUNTIES OF THE RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS SENDING IN RETURNS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Counties	Number of Teachers Replying
Albany.....	24
Allegany.....	2
Broome.....	146
Cattaraugus.....	3
Cayuga.....	20
Chautauqua.....	1

¹ It will be understood that "complete" returns in a study of this sort could be secured only at great expense. Because of the validity of the method of "random sampling," the value of a complete census would not be at all proportionate to its cost.

**DISTRIBUTION BY COUNTIES OF THE RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS SENDING IN
RETURNS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE—Continued**

Counties	Number of Teachers Replying
Chemung.....	1
Chenango.....	1
Clinton.....	0
Columbia.....	43
Cortland.....	0
Delaware.....	55
Dutchess.....	125
Erie.....	2
Essex.....	22
Franklin.....	101
Fulton.....	77
Genesee.....	1
Greene.....	1
Hamilton.....	14
Herkimer.....	50
Jefferson.....	39
Lewis.....	33
Livingston.....	36
Madison.....	40
Monroe.....	0
Montgomery.....	55
Nassau.....	1
Niagara.....	71
Oneida.....	63
Onondaga.....	10
Ontario.....	35
Orange.....	41
Orleans.....	23
Oswego.....	67
Otsego.....	32
Putnam.....	1
Rensselaer.....	29
Rockland.....	87
St. Lawrence.....	66
Saratoga.....	52
Schoharie.....	0
Schuyler.....	0
Seneca.....	2
Steuben.....	200
Suffolk.....	62
Sullivan.....	1
Susquehanna.....	1
Tioga.....	24
Tompkins.....	1
Ulster.....	79
Warren.....	28
Washington.....	69
Wayne.....	1
Westchester.....	0
Wyoming.....	44
Yates.....	2

THE CLASSIFICATION OF RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS AND THEIR DISTRIBUTION AMONG DIFFERENT TYPES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The 2497 teachers considered in this report have been grouped under five heads, as follows:

	Number	Percent
Teachers in one-teacher schools	1492	59.8
“ “ two-teacher “	237	9.5
“ “ village “	695	27.8
Principals of village schools ¹	47	1.9
Unclassified replies ¹	22	0.9
		<hr/> 99.9

Our principal concern is with the teachers of the one-teacher and two-teacher schools, and especially with the former, as representing most typically the schools of the open country. The village teachers referred to here are elementary teachers only. Another section of the report considers in detail the problems and personnel of the village high schools, with which the people of the open country are probably more intimately concerned than they are with the village elementary schools. Conditions in the latter schools, however, are important to the country people in so far as they present instructive comparisons with the open-country schools, and in so far as they are related to the problem of consolidation.

The term “village school” as here used means a school of more than two teachers, located in a district under the supervision of one of the district superintendents.

PROPORTIONS OF MEN AND WOMEN AMONG THE RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS

Very few men serve as teachers in the rural schools. If the proportions disclosed by our study may be generalized, the total number of men in the one-teacher schools of the state is not more than 500 out of 8400, or approximately 5.8 percent. In the two-teacher schools the proportion is somewhat higher—8 percent. In the village elementary schools the proportion of men teachers drops to 3 percent. More than one-half of the village principals are men, however.

¹ This preliminary report will not include references to these two small groups.

It is clear that in New York state teaching in the elementary schools, whether urban or rural, has come to be almost exclusively a woman's work. Opinions vary widely as to the significance of this almost complete "feminization" of elementary education. There are those who believe that men should be brought back into the lower schools at any cost, while others maintain that women are by nature far better qualified to teach younger children. Still others are inclined to accept the situation that has developed; this group would hold that, since it is apparently impossible to bring strong men into the service, every possible step should be taken to make the work of elementary instruction as attractive as possible to able and well-trained women.

In so far as rural education is concerned, there can be no doubt that a larger proportion of permanent men teachers of *the right sort* are needed. Not many of these, perhaps, would in any case be found in the one-teacher schools, for here the younger children predominate, and the belief that women can, as a rule, deal more effectively with the problems of primary education, is well founded. Even from these posts, however, well-qualified men should not be arbitrarily excluded any more than women should be arbitrarily excluded from the teaching and administrative positions to which men are customarily appointed. In open-country communities, where two-teacher schools are possible, there would be a distinct advantage in having as the "staff" of such a school a man and his wife, the former in charge of the upper grades and the latter in charge of the lower grades. Under these conditions the teachers would become a part of the community in a measure that it is difficult to approximate where they are merely transient "boarders."

THE PROPORTIONS OF MATURE AND IMMATURE TEACHERS IN THE RURAL SCHOOLS

The largest proportions of immature teachers are found in the one-teacher schools. The median¹ age of this group is 23.7 years; that is, one-half of the teachers in the one-teacher schools are 23.7 years of age or younger, and one-half are 23.7 years of age or older.

¹ Average.

Those constituting the oldest fourth of the group are thirty years of age and older, those constituting the youngest fourth are twenty-one years of age or younger. Approximately one-fifth are under twenty-one; only about one-sixth have passed the age of thirty-five. Nearly 10 percent are not yet twenty years old; less than 5 percent have passed the age of fifty.

The teachers in the two-teacher and village schools as a group are significantly older than are those in the one-teacher schools. The comparisons may be seen from the following summary. For convenience of reference the data are also given for elementary teachers in typical cities and for the teachers of the village high schools.

TABLE 2.—AGE OF TEACHERS IN THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS

	Median Age	Range of First (Youngest) Fourth	Range of Fourth (Oldest) Fourth
Teachers in one-teacher schools	23.7	18-21	30 and older
Teachers in two-teacher schools	27.6	18-23	33 " "
Teachers in village elementary schools	28.5	19-24	37 " "
293 teachers in village high schools	26
Elementary teachers in 50 New York cities of the third class	29 ¹
Elementary teachers in seven New York cities of the second class	34 ¹

The higher proportion of mature teachers in the two-teacher schools as compared with the one-teacher schools is especially interesting. It suggests a possibility that one may well bear in mind in the subsequent comparisons of these two groups—the possibility, namely, that it is not so much the social and recreational isolation of the one-teacher school that renders it unattractive to the mature teacher as it is the professional isolation. The presence of even one fellow-worker adds to the respect that one has for one's work and

¹ Approximated from Engelhardt's study made for the State Education Department in 1919. (Unpublished.)

the satisfaction that one finds in it. The two-teacher school, too, not only provides professional companionship, but it also permits a significant measure of specialization in teaching. The conscientious teacher is likely to be depressed and discouraged by the congested program that is necessary when one attempts to teach all the subjects of the elementary program. Only a few minutes can be given to each class; the careful preparation of each lesson by the teacher is out of the question, and an undue amount of energy must be expended either in providing interesting independent work for the pupils at their seats or in "keeping order" when such work is not provided. Dividing the responsibilities with another teacher reduces these difficulties and irritations by much more than half.

In the one-teacher schools, however, something can be done to counteract this professional isolation. It is possible in some localities for teachers of two or more adjacent schools to live in the same house and thus have daily opportunities to discuss their problems with one another. Supervisors of rural schools sometimes arrange for group meetings of teachers one or two Saturdays each month, when weather permits, and this serves to bring the isolated teacher in frequent contact with his or her fellow-workers. New Jersey employs "helping teachers," who go about among the open-country schools conferring with the regular teachers and aiding them in their work.

THE LENGTH OF SERVICE OF RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS

If the teachers of the one-teacher schools were arranged in line according to the number of years that they have taught, the middle teacher of the group would be found to be in the fourth year of service. Between one-fourth and one-fifth of these teachers (22 percent) are serving their first year, hence at the present time the one-teacher schools employ each year approximately 1850 *new* teachers. On the other hand, one-fourth of these teachers have taught eight years or longer.

The comparison of this group with the teachers of the two-teacher schools, the village schools, and typical city elementary schools is shown in the following table:

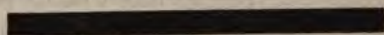
TABLE 3.—TEACHING EXPERIENCE OF TEACHERS IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF NEW YORK SCHOOLS

	Median Years' Experience	Range First Fourth (Shortest Experience)	Range Fourth Fourth (Longest Experience)
	Years	Years	Years
Teachers in one-teacher schools of New York	3.16	0-1.22	8-46
Teachers in two-teacher schools of New York	6.36	0-2.46	11-40
Teachers in village elementary schools of New York	6.59	0-3.23	14-48
293 teachers in village high schools	3.00
Elementary teachers in 50 New York cities of the third class	11.00 ¹
Elementary teachers in seven New York cities of the second class	13.00 ¹

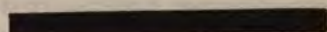
NEW YORK TEACHERS

MEDIAN YEARS' EXPERIENCE

Elementary—Second-class cities . . . 13.0



Elementary—Third-class cities . . . 11.0



Village elementary schools 6.6



Two-teacher schools 6.4



One-teacher schools 3.2



Village high schools 3.0



Diagram 1.—Teaching experience of teachers in different types of New York schools

THE FAMILIES FROM WHICH RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS ARE RECRUITED

Information on this point was sought for three reasons: (1) It is important to know in how far the teachers in our public schools represent native American families. (2) It is generally believed that the best rural school teachers, other things equal, are those who are familiar with open-country life and appreciative of its problems. The assumption will scarcely be questioned that teachers who have been brought up in the open country will meet these conditions more

¹ Approximated from Engelhardt's study.

frequently than will teachers who have grown up under urban conditions. We shall wish to know, then, what proportion of the rural school teachers are now drawn from rural homes? (3) If it be granted that the rural schools should draw their teachers largely from rural homes, and if it be further granted that the rural schools should have teachers who are at least as well trained as are those in the urban schools, it is clear that the economic status of the families now supplying teachers must be considered in any study of the problem of professional preparation. In other words, to what extent can the type of family now supplying teachers for the rural schools be depended upon to provide such teachers with the necessary training?

1. NATIONALITY OF PARENTS.—The rural school teachers of New York, whether in the open country or the villages, come predominantly from native-born American stock, more than 83 percent reporting both parents native born. In an additional 8 percent of the cases one of the parents is native born. The small proportion of teachers coming from foreign-born stock is distributed among a variety of immigrant sources, among which the most frequently mentioned are: Irish (4.49 percent of mothers; 4.41 percent of fathers); German (1.64 percent and 1.92 percent); Canadian (1.48 percent and 1.04 percent); and English (1.40 percent and 2.04 percent).

2. OCCUPATION OF FATHERS.—Here an interesting and important difference is to be noted among the teachers of the three types of rural schools. In the one-teacher schools nearly two-thirds of the teachers come from farmers' families, and a slightly larger proportion report that they were brought up in the open country. These proportions decrease, however, as we pass from the one-teacher schools to the two-teacher schools, from the two-teacher schools to the village elementary schools, and from the village elementary schools to the village high schools. The facts are shown in Table 4.

There is then a clear tendency, even in two-teacher schools, to employ as teachers fewer persons who have grown up in the country than are employed in the one-teacher schools. This tendency increases in the village elementary schools and is most clearly evident in the village high schools—the schools to which most farmers are limited for the secondary education of their children. There is no reason to assume, however, that this is a discrimination

against open-country teachers as such. As will be pointed out in a later section, the salaries of teachers also increase as one passes from the isolated schools to the larger centers, and from elementary positions to high school positions. With higher salaries, better training can be demanded; for reasons that will be referred to below the most serious handicap of the farmer's son or daughter in securing these better paid positions lies in the cost and inconvenience of securing the essential training. If, then, the interests of rural education require that, in the two-room schools, the village elementary schools, and the village high schools, a larger proportion of teachers should have the open-country background, the possibility of reducing this handicap must be carefully considered.

TABLE 4.—OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OF TEACHERS IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS

	One-teacher Schools	Two-teacher Schools	Village Ele- mentary Schools	Village High Schools
Percent of teachers reporting that they were brought up in the open country . . .	67.35 ✓	59.91	42.59	25.0
Brought up in village	23.99	32.06	42.01	42.0
Brought up in cities	4.28	4.21	9.64	27.0
Percent of teachers report- ing as occupation of father—				
Farming	64.81	55.27	41.58	..
Business	8.64	10.54	16.69	..
Artisan trades	11.59	14.34	16.69	..
Laborer	7.23	11.81	10.21	..
Professions	2.82	4.21	4.89	..
Civil service	1.47	0.42	1.87	..

3. PARENTAL INCOME.—What has just been said suggests at once the importance of determining as accurately as possible the economic status of the families that are now furnishing teachers for the rural schools. The difficulties of obtaining the information are obvious. The teachers are likely to resent such an inquiry under the impression that it is of no concern to outsiders. Our question-sheets gave a careful explanation of the purpose of the question, and further stated that the teacher's name could be omitted if desired and that, in any case, the information would be

used only in summaries, in which there would be no possibility of identifying either individuals or localities. It is, we think, a tribute to the rural school teachers that so large a proportion of them—60 percent—were willing to answer the question. This is a higher proportion than in any similar study with which we are familiar. There is, however, another difficulty which should be clearly recognized. Even with the best of intentions, a teacher may be unable to make an accurate statement of parental income. When one's father is a salaried worker or a wage-earner, the chance of error in stating this income may not be great, but farm-accounting is, of course, not so simple. Despite these difficulties, however, the summaries of the information obtained, we are confident, will warrant the conclusions that we shall draw from them, and for the following reasons: (a) The results check in a fairly satisfactory way with those reported in other studies of the economic status of families supplying teachers. (b) It is altogether probable that most errors are those of overestimation rather than of underestimation. (c) Even if the average error were as large as \$300, which is not probable, the significance of the figures for our purposes would not be appreciably lessened.

If the information that we have be regarded as trustworthy, we may conclude that the typical or median rural school teacher in New York comes from a family which had an annual income of approximately \$1000 at the time when he or she began the work of teaching; one-half of these teachers, then, came from families having a \$1000 income or less; one-half came from families whose incomes equaled or exceeded this figure. The median parental income does not vary significantly among the three types of rural school teachers considered (one-teacher schools, two-teacher schools, and village schools).¹ Hence any advantages that the teachers of the last two groups have enjoyed as compared with the first group are not to any large extent those that may be provided by larger parental incomes, although it should be noted that the proportion of village teachers coming from the best circumstanced families is somewhat in excess of the proportion of teachers of the other two

¹The median parental income of the principals and teachers of the village high schools is approximately \$1200.

groups coming from such families, and that the proportion coming from the least well-circumstanced families is correspondingly lower in the village group. On the whole, however, elementary teachers, not only in the rural districts, but throughout the state and the nation, are drawn predominantly from families in moderate circumstances,¹ *families that would find it extremely difficult to provide a costly professional education for any of their children.* This fact must be of basic significance in considering any proposals for raising the qualifications of teachers through advancing arbitrarily the standard of training.

4. NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE FAMILY.—Closely associated with the economic status of the families supplying elementary teachers is the size of the family. With only one or two children, a family in even very moderate circumstances can often provide for the education of the children during the later years of their youth under circumstances where the expenses of living away from home must be met. This possibly is lessened with even one additional child, while such a family with four children almost certainly would be seriously handicapped in educating its older children, although the younger children, or at least the youngest, might be sent away to school—aided by the older brothers and sisters.

How large, then, are the families supplying teachers and to what extent do these teachers represent the younger children of their respective families? Inasmuch as 99 percent of the replies gave information on the first point, and nearly as many on the second point, the difficulties involved in the determination of economic status do not confront us here. One-half of the rural school

¹ This was clearly revealed by the first careful investigation of the problem, L. D. Coffman's *The Social Composition of the Teaching Population*, published in 1911. The annual parental income of the women in the elementary schools of the country was estimated by Coffman to be \$836. A study of the town and city teachers of Illinois in 1914 found the median parental income of women teachers to be \$795. A study of the Missouri teachers in 1915 revealed the median parental income of elementary teachers in the medium-sized towns and cities to be somewhat less than \$1000. The figure for the white elementary teachers of Baltimore was found in 1921 to be \$1200. When one takes into account the decline in the value of the dollar during the past decade and the consequent absolute, but not necessarily relative, increase in all incomes, the correspondence among these findings is compelling evidence of their general validity.

teachers come from families having four¹ or more children; one-half come from families having four or fewer children. One-fourth come from families of two or fewer children; one-fourth from families of six or more children.

Of every 100 teachers of one-teacher schools, fewer than nine are the "only" children in their respective families; of the teachers of two-teacher schools, slightly more than 10; of the teachers of village schools, slightly more than nine—variations that are probably not noteworthy. Fifty-eight percent of the teachers report that they represent either the oldest or the second oldest child of the family; 36 percent are the oldest. Hence there is a very slight² but perhaps significant tendency for the teaching profession to draw the older children. There is an obvious advantage in this apparent fact, for the older children in relatively large families can be safely depended upon to have had some valuable experience in taking responsibility for the younger members of the group. On the other hand, the fact that the teachers do not in general represent predominantly the younger children of their respective families is clear evidence that any advantage which the younger children may have for extended education in comparison with their older brothers and sisters does not accrue in any large measure to the public school service.

THE EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS

The facts and inferences set forth in the preceding section would lead one to conclude that the educational equipment of rural school teachers has been determined very largely by the opportunities afforded in the home communities, or in the case of those brought up in the open country, by the high-school facilities of nearby towns and villages. The reports confirm this conclusion so far as it concerns the teachers of the one-teacher schools and to some extent those of the two-teacher schools.

¹ This median coincides with that found in all previous studies of elementary teachers. It should be noted that this is larger than the average family of the country and the average family of the state. Elementary teachers come predominantly from large families.

² Some of these "oldest children" are, of course, the "only" children of their respective families.

1. **ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.**—A small proportion—about 10 percent¹—of the teachers in all three types of schools have apparently had no formal education beyond the elementary school. These are presumably the older teachers, who entered the service when standards of certification were lower than they have been in recent years, together with a few who have been granted temporary certificates during the past two years of “teacher-shortage.”

2. **HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION.**—Nearly 90 percent of the rural school teachers have had some high school education, and a substantial majority—85 percent—are graduates of four-year high schools. Comparisons may readily be made from the following table:

TABLE 5.—HIGH SCHOOL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS

	One-teacher Schools	Two-teacher Schools	Village Elementary Schools
Percent of teachers who attended high school two years or less.....	13.46	15.60	10.35
Attended high school four years or more ²	56.08	45.14	66.31

The proportion having four years of high school education is thus seen to be lowest in the two-teacher schools and highest in the village schools. The two-teacher schools here seem to be at a disadvantage as compared with the one-teacher schools.

3. **NORMAL SCHOOL AND COLLEGE EDUCATION.**—A compensating proportion of teachers in the two-teacher schools, however, have

¹ The corresponding proportion for Pennsylvania was stated in 1920 to be 25 percent. (Proceedings, Univ. of Pennsylvania's School-men's Week, 1920, p. 81.)

² In certain other states the proportions of rural school teachers who have had a four-year high school education are lower than in New York; for example: Alabama, 38 percent; Colorado, 35 percent; Virginia, 41 percent; Nebraska, 58 percent. In South Dakota the proportion is somewhat higher—58 percent. In Massachusetts and New Jersey the proportion of rural teachers with *only* high school education is very small. In Massachusetts in 1920, 85.9 percent of *all* teachers had had at least two years of education beyond high school. (State Report, 1920, p. 34.) Of the new teachers in the village and rural schools of New Jersey in 1919–20, only 20 percent had had less than two years' education beyond high school. (State Report, 1920, p. 41.)

attended normal schools, some of them undoubtedly at the time when the latter were essentially secondary institutions. The following table shows the proportions of teachers in the three types of schools who have had some measure of normal school training:

TABLE 6.—NORMAL SCHOOL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS

	One- teacher Schools	Two- teacher Schools	Village Elemen- tary Schools	50 New York Cities of the Third Class	7 New York Cities of the Second Class
Percent of teachers who at- tended normal school one year or less.....	4.01	12.65	12.50
Attended normal school two years only.....	3.41	6.75	28.77	80.0 ¹	62.0
Attended normal school more than two years.....	2.20	3.37	6.74		
Percent with some normal school education.....	9.62	22.77	48.01

The proportion of rural school teachers who have attended college is negligible: one-teacher schools, 3.79 percent; two-teacher schools, 4.22 percent; village elementary schools, 5.45 percent. Few of these have attended college more than a year or two. College graduates constitute less than one-third of 1 percent of the rural school personnel.

Undoubtedly the most significant fact regarding the preparation of rural school teachers is the very small proportion of normal school graduates in the one-teacher schools. Our returns indicate this proportion to be not more than 5 percent. If these returns represent fairly the situation in the state at large, it would seem that, out of a total of 8400 teachers in one-teacher schools, not more than 420 have had the amount of preparation generally agreed upon as the lowest acceptable minimum for elementary teachers.

The proportion of teachers who have met this minimal standard

¹ Approximated from Engelhardt's study.

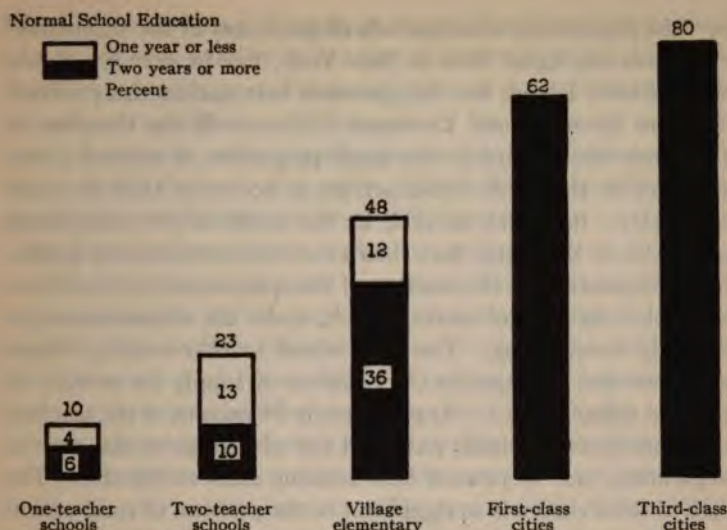


Diagram 2.—Normal school education of teachers in different types of New York schools

increases as we pass to the two-teacher and village schools, but in no one of these groups do teachers with standard training constitute anything approaching a majority. The number of teachers in the three groups who hold elementary normal school diplomas is significant in this connection, especially as the proportions confirm the findings set forth in Table 7.

TABLE 7.—PROPORTION OF TEACHERS HOLDING ELEMENTARY NORMAL SCHOOL DIPLOMAS

	One-teacher Schools	Two-teacher Schools	Village Elementary Schools
Percent of teachers holding elementary normal school diplomas.....	4.82	10.54	30.50

The failure of the normal schools to provide teachers for the rural service is by no means peculiar to New York. In some states—for example, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and New Jer-

sey—the proportions of normal school graduates in the open-country schools are higher than in New York, but in very few states, except Rhode Island, has this problem been satisfactorily solved.

4. THE HIGH SCHOOL TRAINING CLASSES.—If the situation in New York with regard to the small proportion of normal school graduates in the rural school service is no worse than in many other states, it should be said, to the credit of the educational authorities of the state, that their efforts to provide some professional preparation for the teachers of the open-country schools have met with a measure of success which, under the circumstances, is distinctly encouraging. The high school teacher-training classes have been and still are the chief sources of supply for recruits to the rural school service. Approximately 54 percent of the teachers in the one-teacher schools have had the advantage of this type of preparation, and 49 percent hold training class certificates. The work of these classes is so significant to the problem of rural education that it was made a separate subject of study, the principal findings of which will be briefly summarized at this point.¹

In 1920-21 there were just 50 of these high school training classes in the state. The work of typical classes was studied in detail through actual visitation and conference. The results of this study were supplemented by a question-sheet sent to all the classes, and filled out and returned by 48 of the 50 teachers in charge.

General Organization.—The high school training classes are really departments of the town and city high schools with which they are connected. The members of the classes are high school pupils, some of whom take the professional work in their fourth year, whereas others remain one year after graduation, making the professional study a fifth or graduate year of high school attendance. In 1920-21 the 582 pupils for whom reports were made were almost equally divided between the fourth-year and fifth-year groups.

¹ The interesting and instructive history of the high school teacher-training classes of New York cannot be even briefly narrated in this report because of the limitations of space. The movement dates from 1827, and the New York teacher-training classes are consequently the oldest of existing American agencies for the professional preparation of teachers, antedating the first of the state normal schools (those of Massachusetts) by a full decade. (See Annual Report, State Education Department, vol. ii, 1915, pp. 20 ff.)

The work is under the immediate supervision of the local school authorities, although the state exercises a certain measure of oversight through an inspector of training classes attached to the State Education Department. The expenses of the classes are met from local school funds, with special aid from the state to the extent of \$700 annually for each class, with additional bonuses which bring the state's contribution to about \$1000 on the average.

The Training-class Pupils.—The classes vary in size. Two have only four members each; three have six members; one has 18 members; the largest has 21 members. The average membership is from 12 to 13. Of the total enrolment, 93.2 percent is made up of girls; 6.8 percent of boys. Most of the pupils are seventeen or eighteen years old when they enter the class. It is significant that a large proportion of them come from the open country—65.2 percent as against 34.4 percent from the towns and cities in which the training classes are located. The reports, both of the visitors and of the training-class teachers, indicate that the pupils as a whole constitute a genuinely superior group.

The Training-class Teachers.—Each class is in charge of a special teacher—in every case a woman. In 18 cases out of the 48 reporting, however, the teacher has duties in the high school in addition to the training-class work—usually the teaching of one other class. As a group the teachers are relatively old; the median age is forty-eight; the range of youngest fourth is from twenty-three to thirty-eight; and the range of the oldest fourth is from forty-nine to fifty-eight. All are native born except one (a Canadian by birth), and nearly all (44 of the 48) are natives of New York state. They are all teachers of experience. Only one of them has had so brief an experience as five years; the median experience is 20.5 years; eight have taught for thirty years or more. In at least 15 cases this experience has not included any service in one-teacher rural schools, and the median of such experience in the group as a whole is only 2.1 years. A majority of them, however, are country born (66 percent) and attended rural schools as children (68 percent). Two-thirds are graduates of four-year high schools, and five-sixths are normal school graduates, the New York normal schools accounting for all of these except one, and the normal schools at Oneonta,

Geneseo, and Cortland claiming one-half of the entire number. Three of the 48 hold college degrees. Two-thirds of them have supplemented their earlier education by attendance at the summer sessions of colleges and normal schools. Only about one-fourth, however, have undertaken specialized studies dealing with rural school and rural life problems.

The Training-class Curriculum.—The work of the training classes is outlined in a special syllabus prepared by the State Department of Education, and while the teachers make some changes to meet the special conditions under which they work, the subjects and topics of study are not essentially altered. The essential features of the curriculum are: (1) A review of the basic studies of the elementary school, involving work in arithmetic, language and grammar, geography, American history, civics, drawing, and nature study, with some reference to agriculture; (2) a special study of methods of teaching reading, especially in the primary grades; (3) a brief course in the use of the library; (4) the "professional" subjects—psychology, school management, and school law; and (5) practical training in the art of teaching, involving both observation and class teaching.

Both the observation and the practice teaching are carried on almost exclusively in the graded elementary schools of the towns and cities in which the training classes are located. In most of the cases two periods of from twenty to thirty minutes each are spent each week in observing class work. In more than one-fourth of the cases no attempt whatsoever is made to have the prospective rural teachers visit the type of school in which they are preparing to serve. In 11 cases only one such visit is made in the course of the year; in 11 cases, two visits; in five cases, three visits. Four classes report 10 or more visits to neighboring rural schools. The practice teaching is entirely in the local graded schools, except in three cases, where some practice in a rural school is afforded—in two cases for one day, and in one case for seven days! In the local schools the practice teaching is usually limited to the lower grades; as a rule, the student teaches five periods a week for two weeks.

In only three cases are the training-class pupils exclusively concerned with training-class work; one or more non-professional high

school subjects are usually carried at the same time. This feature of the organization is, of course, one of the reasons for the slight emphasis given to rural school observation and practice.

Summary of Training-class Conditions.—Many of the elements of weakness in the training-class system as the chief source of supply for rural school teachers are evident from the facts set forth above: (1) The curriculum must be covered in so brief a time that only a superficial preparation can be given. (2) This curriculum includes a wide range of subjects and activities, all of which are taught by one teacher. Thus one of the most serious handicaps of the rural schools is reproduced in the institution which prepares rural school teachers. Even if rural children must be denied the advantages of having teachers who are in some degree special students of the subjects they teach, it would seem to be compounding the injustice to impose the same limitations in the training of teachers for the rural school service. (3) The training class, even if it be made up of fifth-year pupils, is essentially of high school grade, for almost inevitably it will partake of the characteristics of the high school work of which it is a part. The prospective teachers, instead of having their associations with students more mature and further advanced than they are themselves, are kept on a plane representing lower levels of maturity and attainment. It is true that these prospective teachers are professionally concerned with children, but this does not mean that their professional study should be on the juvenile or adolescent level. (4) When professional preparation is organized as an incident to education of a non-professional type, the development of a thoroughgoing atmosphere of professional zeal and enthusiasm is a difficult task. The pressure of other interests and aims tends to distract the student from the work that should absorb him.

These are among the defects of the training-class policy wherever it is found. The New York training classes present, with these, certain specific and probably remediable weaknesses of organization and curriculum to which brief reference may be made. (1) They are not organized in such a way that the professional work becomes the exclusive work of the pupil during the period of training. Such an organization is feasible and exists in the training-

class systems of certain other states, notably Minnesota. (2) They are not exclusively graduate or fifth-year classes. Four full years of basic high school preparation is none too much to serve as a foundation for truly professional study. To curtail this general or liberal education by a full year or a half-year is an injustice not only to the student, but to the pupils of the school in which he or she will serve as a teacher. (3) The teachers of the training classes, while thoroughly devoted to their important work, are as a group themselves undertrained. Only a negligible proportion of them, indeed, meet the recognized standards for appointment to high school teaching positions, and yet they are teaching pupils nearly half of whom are high school graduates and all of whom are receiving at the hands of these teachers their preparation for one of the most difficult and exacting fields of public school service. (4) The training-class curriculum is especially weak in its failure to provide explicit instruction in the special problems of the rural school teacher. One would expect, for example, even in a brief curriculum for such a teacher, a course in rural life problems and a course in the management of rural schools, which is a quite different thing from the management of a graded elementary school. (5) The failure to provide adequate facilities for observation and teaching in neighboring rural schools is a very serious defect of the training classes of the New York high schools.

All this is far from saying that the New York training classes are without their elements of strength. They have done much to meet a real need, for they have given to a clear majority of the open-country teachers a training which, inadequate as it is, must be recognized as vastly better than no training at all. They recruit most of their pupils from the farms and send them back to serve the farming districts.¹ Their teachers render devoted service under a grueling program. Their product as a whole is more satisfactory to the people of the open country than is the small fraction of the normal school product that enters the rural service. It is largely to the credit of the New York training classes that the median age of the rural school teachers of the state is higher and the

¹ In this connection, however, it should be said that the training-class certificate legally qualifies one to teach *only* in a rural school.

average term of service longer than in any other state for which comparable information is available.

But it is not in the comparison with rural conditions in other states that the open-country people of New York are primarily interested. The competition of rural with rural is not significant: *it is the competition of rural with urban that is vital and fundamental.* As long as the high school training class remains the typical agency for the preparation of rural school teachers, no approximation to the urban standards of elementary education will be possible. The city teacher has long been required to have two years of training in a state or city normal school—institutions equipped and staffed as no high school training class could possibly be. This two-year standard in New York state is already being advanced to three years, and there is a general conviction among students of the problem that the forces that have been pushing the standards of teaching upward will continue to operate until at least four years of a broadly conceived professional education beyond high school graduation will be the accepted minimum for teachers in the city elementary schools.

Is it not clear that the high school training class as an institution has carried the rural teacher about as far as it can? The present system in New York, of course, could be improved; for the kind of work that it is now doing it could conceivably be perfected. But even its perfection would be but a makeshift solution of the problem. It is essentially a closed system; it has reached the limits of its real growth. If the rural schools—already far below the city standard in so far as the maturity, preparation, and experience of their teachers are concerned—are not to remain permanently and hopelessly on their present level, a new policy of teacher training and a new type of training institution are needed.

5. THE SIX WEEKS' NORMAL SCHOOL SUMMER SESSIONS AS A SUBSTITUTE FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL TRAINING CLASSES.—The State Education Department has apparently recognized that the day of the high school training has passed. In any event the number of these classes has declined from 113 in 1915 to 50 in 1921, and no efforts have been made to replace those that have been abandoned. In their place an attempt has been made to give prospective rural

school teachers some training in six weeks' summer sessions established in the normal schools. Viewed simply as a substitute for the high school training system, this summer-session work would deserve to be characterized as a long step backward. The normal school faculties are not as yet in a position to undertake the preparation of rural school teachers. Their work for thirty years or more has been concentrated on the problem of supplying teachers for the graded elementary schools. Furthermore, while the summer session courses of a normal school or college offer excellent opportunities for supplementing the education of teachers who are already in service, they should not be thought of as in any sense a substitute for pre-service training. In the first place, the most important part of a good teacher-training institution—the elementary practice school—can be operated, if at all, only with a greatly reduced pupil enrolment and an abbreviated program during the summer months. In the second place the period of six weeks is altogether too short for fundamental training. Better by far the retention of the high school training classes than their substitution by the far less adequate preparation thus provided.

It is probable, however, that the policy of the State Education Department looks much further than the six weeks' summer sessions of the normal schools—that it looks, indeed, toward the development of strong departments for the preparation of rural teachers in the regular sessions of these state teacher-training institutions. The possibilities of such a development will be considered a little further on in this report. As fundamental to the discussion of this and other constructive proposals for strengthening the rural schools, however, one further set of facts regarding the rural school teachers as a group should be set forth—the facts, namely, that concern the economic status of the rural teaching service.

THE FINANCIAL REWARDS OF RURAL SCHOOL TEACHING

1. SALARIES.—During the year 1920-21 the teachers in one-teacher schools received a median salary of \$837. The proportion of teachers receiving salaries very much smaller than this is almost negligible—only 2.4 percent report salaries of less than \$700 for their year's work. Approximately 40 percent of the salaries are

between \$700 and \$800, while 8.6 percent are \$1000 and above. The highest salary appearing in our returns for the group of one-teacher schools is \$1400.

Comparisons of one-teacher schools with two-teacher, village elementary schools, and village high schools are shown in the following summary:

TABLE 8.—SALARIES OF TEACHERS IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS

	Median Salary	Range Middle 50 Percent	Percent \$650 and Below	Highest Reported
Teachers in one-teacher schools..	\$837	\$700-\$900	2.40	\$1400
Teachers in two-teacher schools..	915	800- 1000	1.26	1500
Teachers in village elementary schools.....	935	900- 1100	0.42	1800
293 teachers in village high schools.....	1200	1100- 1300	0.00	2500

The salaries for 1920-21 were, of course, considerably higher than during any preceding year, owing both to local increases and to the relatively generous additions made from state funds under the provisions of the Lockwood-Donohue act. Any prediction as to the permanence of these salaries would be unsafe at the present time. It is interesting to know, however, in how far the compensation of teachers on this basis serves to meet the cost of living and what margins for "savings" and "culture" are possible under such a salary schedule as is here reported.¹

EARNINGS OTHER THAN SALARY.—While a large proportion of teachers earn no money in addition to their salaries,² one-fourth of those in one-teacher schools report "outside" earnings. The proportion is slightly lower—22.7 percent—in the two-teacher group; for the village teachers the proportion is 20.5 percent. The median

¹ It is to be noted that practically all rural schools of New York state have terms at least nine months (thirty-six weeks) in duration. A considerable proportion, indeed,—one-fifth of the one-teacher schools, nearly one-half of the two-teacher schools, and more than four-fifths of the village schools,—are in session for ten months, or forty weeks. The brief-term rural school is practically non-existent in New York.

² Except in many cases a small sum for doing the janitor work.

amount earned by "outside" employment is \$90, with only slight variations among the three groups. The employment is chiefly in the summer vacations. Indeed, relatively few of these teachers (22.1 percent) are idle during the summer. Fourteen percent attend summer schools, 33 percent are engaged in housework, presumably in their own homes; 8 percent report that they do farm work; 2 percent are employed in summer-resort hotels; and 2.5 percent find work as clerks. Other occupations claim smaller proportions.

LIVING EXPENSES.—Living expenses¹ for teachers of one-teacher schools average about \$7.00 a week (median, \$6.91); for the two-teacher group the median is \$9.00; for the village group, \$10.50. These figures are based upon the replies of about one-half of the teachers in each group. In about 30 percent of the cases the cost of board, room, and laundry must be met for a full fifty-two week year. In other cases the teachers live with their parents during the summer. By multiplying the weekly expenditures by the median number of weeks during which board and room-rent are paid, the median annual expenditure of the three groups for these items may be roughly estimated to be as follows:

	Approximate Median Annual Expenditure for Board, Room Laundry, and Transportation,
Teachers in one-teacher schools	\$294
Teachers in two-teacher schools	396
Teachers in village schools	546

INSURANCE AND PENSIONS.—One-fourth of the teachers report expenditures for life insurance; the median cost for those reporting is approximately \$25 a year. Contributions to pension funds, on the other hand, are reported by 70 percent of the teachers; the median amount spent for this purpose each year is \$8.00.

SUPPORT OF DEPENDENTS.—An important fact to be considered in determining the adequacy of teachers' salaries is the number of dependents that they support, either wholly or in part. Even among the unmarried women teachers in the cities the proportion contributing to the support of dependents is high, especially among

¹ Including board, room, laundry, and transportation.

those thirty years of age and older. The number of rural school teachers in the older age-groups is relatively small; hence one would expect to find a lower proportion having obligations of this sort. The following tables summarize the information regarding this point:

TABLE 9.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS REPORTING THAT THEY SUPPORT AS *TOTAL* DEPENDENTS

	One Adult	Two or More Adults	One Child	Two or More Children
Teachers of one-teacher schools.....	4.9	1.4	2.74	2.90
Teachers of two-teacher schools.....	6.3	1.3	2.95	1.68
Village teachers.....	4.9	1.3	2.73	1.14

TABLE 10.—PERCENT OF TEACHERS REPORTING THAT THEY HELP TO SUPPORT AS *PARTIAL* DEPENDENTS

	One Adult	Two or More Adults	One Child	Two or More Children
Teachers of one-teacher schools.....	7.30	4.88	6.43	5.87
Teachers of two-teacher schools.....	10.54	5.06	3.79	3.79
Village teachers.....	11.51	6.34	3.74	4.88

While some overlapping is represented in the percentages given above, it may be inferred that about 10 percent of the teachers in one-teacher schools support total dependents, while an additional 20 percent help to support partial dependents.

The proportion of teachers supporting dependents is much higher than this in the cities. "Over 50 percent of the teachers of the second and third class cities and the villages employing superintendents are supporting other than themselves."¹ With a rela-

¹ Engelhardt's study, prepared for the State Education Department in 1919.

tively permanent teaching personnel in the open-country schools the average age of the teachers would be considerably higher and the proportion supporting dependents would doubtless be increased. For this as well as for other reasons teaching in the open-country schools is not likely to become a permanent calling until better salaries are paid.

SAVINGS AND OTHER INVESTMENTS.—As a result in part of the relatively lower cost of living in the open country and in part of the fact that a larger proportion of these teachers live at home with their parents, the teachers of the one-teacher schools are able to save more money than are their higher salaried colleagues in the village schools:

	Percent of Teachers Reporting Savings and Other Investments	Median Savings or Other Investments of Those Reporting
Teachers of one-teacher schools. .	56.9	\$221.89
Teachers of two-teacher schools. .	60.4	215.38
Village teachers.	49.5	172.41

For comparison with the figures given above we have no data from teachers in the larger cities of New York. A similar inquiry, however, was addressed to the teachers of Baltimore a few months before the question-sheet was sent to the New York rural school teachers. Twenty-eight percent of the elementary teachers reported median savings of approximately \$50 during the year 1919-20, when the average salary of these teachers was in the neighborhood of \$1100.

SUMMARY OF THE FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS.—The facts set forth above seem to justify the conclusion that, while low salaries are a serious handicap to rural school service, the open-country teachers, under the conditions prevailing in 1920-21, were clearly better off than were the village and city teachers. Although their actual salaries were lower, their cost of living was lower and their savings were higher. It is altogether probable that teachers, whether just entering the service or considering a change from country to town or city, do not often take into account the compensating factor of lower living costs in the open country. A campaign of information emphasizing this ad-

vantage of open-country teaching might well be carried on among high school seniors and normal school students.

As has been suggested in an earlier section, however, the financial reward is only one of several factors that have operated to make rural school teaching unattractive. Village teachers, to the number of 340, answered our question as to the reasons for preferring village to open-country service. While 93 mentioned the higher salaries offered by the village schools as one factor in determining their choice, 99 mentioned the better teaching conditions afforded by fewer grades, and 80 mentioned "better living conditions." The alleged lack of "social advantages" in the open-country districts, which is frequently assumed to be an important factor in this choice, was mentioned by only 19 teachers, while the better educational opportunities afforded by the larger communities were mentioned by three times as many. The fact that the change from country to village enabled the teachers to serve in a "better school" was mentioned 28 times. Incomplete as they are, these findings, we believe, have a large significance. The *mature and experienced teachers* in our public schools as a group are *professionally minded and have sincere professional ambitions*. They wish to grow in their work, and, while they cannot be unmindful of the wages that they receive or of the conditions under which they must live, these factors do not by any means overshadow all others in determining their motives.

If these inferences are valid, it follows that, in addition to the provision of more attractive financial rewards, a fundamental means of making the open-country service attractive is to improve the opportunities that it affords for professional growth and recognition. Our study shows conclusively that teaching in a one-teacher school is regarded by the teachers themselves not only as a difficult job, but as a job in which one's best efforts do not often bring either the personal satisfaction of doing good work or the professional recognition that an efficient worker quite legitimately craves. As long as the one-teacher school is a necessity—and in certain communities it will undoubtedly be a necessity for some time to come—then would it not be a sound public policy to make it *a post of the highest distinction*, reserved for teachers who have

demonstrated their ability to do well the difficult work that it involves? This, of course, would be a complete reversal of the present policy, which regards the one-teacher school as the humblest of all the fields of educational service. Such a transformation is not, however, impossible. The problems involved are not exclusively financial problems, although higher salaries must be offered if competent teachers are to be encouraged to make this a field of permanent service. Beyond this, however, the problem is essentially social and professional—chiefly, we believe, the latter. The possibilities of its solution will be considered in the following section.

The advantages that two-teacher schools enjoy as compared with one-teacher schools suggest also the possibility of developing schools of this type where larger units are impracticable.

THE TYPICAL RURAL SCHOOL TEACHER

Having in mind the variations presented by the foregoing tables, it may be helpful to attempt a "pen picture" of the typical rural school teacher, based upon the medians or "central tendencies" revealed by the tables. Unless the variations are considered, such a picture is, of course, likely to be misleading.

The typical teacher of a one-room rural school in New York state is between twenty-three and twenty-four years old, and has been teaching between four and five years, having begun this work at the age of eighteen. She is native born of native-born parents. She comes from a farmer's family which had an approximate income of \$1000 at the time she entered teaching. She was one of the older children in a family of three or four children. She attended an elementary rural school for eight years and a neighboring high school for four years. During the latter part of her high school course she was a member of a teachers' training class. This class was in charge of a woman between forty and fifty years of age, who had graduated several years before from one of the New York state normal schools, and whose further education had been limited to one summer session in a college or a normal school. In this training class the present typical rural school teacher reviewed the common school branches. She also studied psychology, school management, and school law. She took no courses exclusively

designed for the preparation of rural school teachers. She observed class work twice a week for a year in the local town elementary schools, and she made two or three visits during the year to a neighboring rural school. In addition to this observation she had two weeks of practice teaching in one of the grades of the town schools.

With this equipment she began her work in a one-room rural school. She has had no additional education, either general or professional, since beginning her teaching four years ago. During the year just ended she has read *perhaps* one book on some phase of her work. She takes one professional journal—*The Normal Instructor and Primary Plans*.

In her school she not only teaches but also does most, if not all, of the janitor's work. She sweeps the floor daily. She may do the scrubbing; in any case the floor of this typical teacher's school is scrubbed about twice a year. The outhouses are scrubbed once a year. She is on the playground with her pupils at recess time almost every day, and frequently takes part in their games. Neither she nor any of the pupils who remain through the noon hour has a hot lunch.

She has a room by herself within a mile of the schoolhouse. This room is heated in winter. She is also free to use the living-room of the house and to entertain callers there. There are either one or two children in the home in which she lives and one of them is usually a pupil in her school. She assists the housewife in the work of the home to the extent of more than an hour a day. If she lives with her parents, she spends much more time in helping with the housework. Unless her home is there, she does not often remain in the district over week-ends.

For her teaching she received during the school year 1920-21 a salary of \$800, and she taught nine months. During the summer she lives with her parents and usually helps with the housework and the lighter farm work. Her necessary living expenses during the school year she estimates at about \$300, and she may have saved about \$200 on the basis of her last year's salary. She has no one dependent upon her for support, either wholly or partially.

A SUGGESTED PROGRAM FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS

It is assumed in the following discussion that the open-country people desire for their schools a devoted and efficient group of teachers. It is also assumed that this desire coincides with a fundamental need of the state.

It is assumed further that such a group of teachers must necessarily meet standards of general and professional education that will not suffer by comparison with the standards prevailing in the best city schools; that the period of service should be longer and the annual "turnover" smaller than is now the case in the one-teacher schools; and that, in consequence, the group as a whole should be much more mature and should represent a much larger proportion of relatively permanent teachers.

A fourth assumption is that rural school service is a specialized service demanding a special type of teacher who has been selected and trained with the peculiar needs of the service primarily in view. This type of teacher, it is assumed, can be best recruited from open-country homes; consequently any program for improving rural school teachers should aim to retain at least as high a proportion of teachers from such homes as is represented in the present personnel of the one-teacher schools.

In addition to these assumptions certain of the facts and conclusions set forth in the preceding discussion should be kept steadily in mind in considering any constructive proposals for betterment:

1. The rural school teachers are now drawn predominantly from relatively large families living in very moderate financial circumstances. It is beyond doubt to the advantage of the schools to keep the service open to this type of recruit. Even if this were not the case, it is questionable whether a sufficient number of teachers could be secured if this source of supply were cut off. (See pp. 45-50.)
2. The high school training classes, because they are easy of access and inexpensive to attend, have been the line of least resistance in the preparation of rural school teachers. They have, however, reached the limits of their real growth, and their continuance as a principal agency of training will still further widen the gap between the rural and the urban schools. (See pp. 54-59.)

3. A reduction in the number of one-teacher schools and their replacement by larger school units will tend to raise the standards of education among the rural school teachers and to lengthen the period of service. *But it will also tend to decrease the proportion of teachers who have the open-country background unless steps are taken to prepare young people from the farms for these positions.* (See pp. 44, 50.) Such a preparation cannot be successfully undertaken by the high school training classes.

4. The relative unattractiveness of service in the one-teacher schools is perhaps due as much to unsatisfactory conditions of work, lack of opportunities for growth, and professional isolation as it is to unsatisfactory living conditions and social isolation. (See pp. 44, 65.)

In the light of these assumptions, facts, and conclusions, the following proposals are submitted:

1. There should be developed a strong *rural school department or division* in each of the existing state normal schools, these departments to be established as rapidly as the demand for those seeking training will warrant and as fast as they can properly be organized. These departments should be in charge of directors who are specialists in the preparation of rural school teachers. Associated with each director there should be a staff of instructors for the appointment of whom familiarity with rural school and rural life conditions should be an important qualification. The curriculum for the preparation of rural school teachers should be distinct and separate from the normal school curricula designed for urban teachers, and, although some of the work may well be done in the same classes, the rural school group should have its own quarters, its own organization, and the fullest opportunity to develop a thoroughgoing professional zeal and purpose. Closely associated with each rural school department there should be a group of neighboring rural schools. These should form the chief "laboratory" of the rural school department. The teachers of these outlying schools should have demonstrated their ability to do expertly well the work that the rural school involves. They should be paid in part by the state and should have recognition as members of the normal school staff.

At the same time they should be thoroughly acceptable as teachers to the local communities in which their schools are located.

The state normal schools at the present time are doing practically nothing in the way of supplying teachers for the rural schools, partly because their product is taken up immediately by the town and city schools and partly because the differentiated and specialized training that rural school teaching involves has not been provided. These conditions should be borne in mind when the few normal school graduates in the rural school service—often those who have failed to secure town and city appointments—are contrasted with the graduates of high school training classes—almost always to the disparagement of the former. Unless the normal schools are provided with well-staffed departments for training rural school teachers, the preparation of such teachers would best be left to the high school training classes; but it is thoroughly practicable to provide such departments and to give to the prospective rural school teachers a type of preparation that the high schools could not possibly equal. The normal schools in question are well distributed and well located for the purpose.

2. To make possible a selection of the best available talent, and to keep the teaching positions in the rural schools open to young people from the open-country homes that heretofore supplied the teachers of the one-teacher schools, a system of state scholarships should be provided. These should be open only to high school graduates who rank with the upper one-half or two-thirds of their high school classes. In addition, the most scientific means possible shall be used in determining their adaptability to teaching. In addition to these personal and educational qualifications they must have lived for at least two years in a rural community, as defined by the Federal census. Such scholarships should provide the holder with tuition while attending an approved course, and an allowance of \$200 per year while away from home. The acceptance of a scholarship should be in the form of a pledge to serve following graduation for at least three years in the rural schools of the state. In case the holder of a university scholarship obtains a teaching scholarship, he shall be entitled to both if in attendance at any institution offering a course approved for the training of rural school teachers.

This proposal to provide scholarships for teachers in training has abundant precedents. The state of New York already offers scholarships on a competitive basis to high-school graduates who wish to continue their studies in colleges and universities. If the holder of such a scholarship wishes to prepare for high school teaching, he or she may attend the State Teachers College at Albany and receive free tuition in addition to the cash bonus provided by the scholarship. The state also provides generous scholarships for those who are qualified to prepare for teaching vocational subjects under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes act. Maryland provides "maintenance scholarships" for students in its state normal schools; these include all necessary expenses of the student in excess of \$100 each year. Smaller cash bonuses to such students are provided in a few other states. In many of the southern and western states scholarships are available from public funds for graduate study in the state universities. Such study is essential for appointment to teaching and research positions in the higher institutions.

3. State aid to one-teacher schools should be distributed in part on the basis of the training that the teacher has had, and to an extent that will enable any community to pay a substantial salary to a well-trained teacher if it wishes to employ such a teacher. A policy of this sort will do much to make *the one-teacher schools the posts of greatest distinction*. It would be advantageous, indeed, if beginning teachers, even when graduates of rural training departments of the normal schools, could first serve an apprenticeship in village schools or two-teacher schools before being advanced to the more difficult work of the one-teacher school.

4. In order to provide opportunities for continuous growth upon the part of rural school teachers, the rural school departments of the normal schools should organize Saturday classes at convenient centers and should also provide summer courses. This work should be designed still further to improve the teachers in the work of rural education, and the successful completion of such courses should qualify the teacher for salary advances, as is now the policy in progressive city school systems.

5. Provision should also be made in competent state institutions for special courses for supervisory officers to the end that these

officers may be qualified to provide competent help in this service.

6. It is suggested that after 1927 no new teachers be admitted to service in the elementary rural schools who have not completed a course in one of the state normal schools. If competent, such courses to be specifically designed to prepare teachers for service in the rural schools.

7. During the period that it is necessary for high school classes to be maintained it is proposed that the expenses of these classes be borne by the state. This will necessitate a central control of the location, selection of teachers, and work of these classes by the State Department of Education.

8. A special division of the State Department of Education should be organized to have, among other functions, administrative charge of the education of rural school teachers. This division should supervise the rural training departments of the state normal schools both as to the preparation that they provide for the training of rural teachers and as to the extension and summer courses that they offer to teachers in service. *It should be particularly careful with responsibility for keeping the work of these departments on a basis that will solve the rural school problem.*

9. The general policies governing the education of rural school teachers, however, should not be exclusively in the hands of the State Department of Education. At least once each year representatives of the men and women employed in the rural school departments of the state normal schools, together with the specialists in the rural school division of the State Department of Education, should meet in conference for a thoroughgoing discussion of the problems that their work involves. Other groups should be represented in this conference—the rural school teachers themselves, the district superintendents, and the principal country-life organizations. Recommendations and suggested policies adopted by this conference should be duly considered by the Commissioner of Education, and, where changes in legislation are involved, transmitted by him to the governor and assembly. In this way the beneficial influences of central oversight may be retained without retaining also its stultifying effects. In this way, too, the opinions and judgments of those who are most closely

cerned with the work of rural education, and the wishes, criticisms, and suggestions of those who have most at stake in the rural schools, can be brought together in open discussion at stated intervals, and a means provided through which proposals for betterment can be not only formulated after due deliberation, but also sent on through regularly constituted channels to those with whom the final decision must rest—namely, the people of the state themselves as represented in their law-making and executive bodies.

CHAPTER V

CURRICULUM OF THE ELEMENTARY RURAL SCHOOL

PURPOSE OF THIS SECTION

THE purpose of this section of the survey was to make a study of that phase of school work which has to do with the things actually studied and taught. In a measure it is the very heart of the school. The organization of schools, the expenditure of money, the preparation and supervision of teachers, are all carried on to make the content of the curriculum become the real possession of the child. It is important, then, for the people to know whether this curriculum is in keeping with modern standards and whether it is furnishing to their children the best possible education.

In New York state we have a state curriculum, that is, the State Department of Education issues a number of pamphlets indicating what subjects should be studied in the elementary school and when they should be studied, giving some advice as to what should be included in each subject and how it should be taught. A school need not follow this, for the law gives each district the right to make its own curriculum.¹ In actual practice, however, the state-issued curriculum is uniformly followed. Our first task was, then, to evaluate this state curriculum, to see whether the help and advice given are in keeping with modern educational principles and practices.

PURPOSE OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

In making this study two fundamental principles were assumed. In the first place, it is held that the *purpose* of elementary education is the same for country children as for village or city children, and that is, to give them such training as will make them acceptable

¹ Section 275, subdivision 10, 1921. Edition of Education Law, p. 92.

members of society, fitted, in so far as their ages permit, to meet the practical demands of daily life, possessing an interest in further learning, and so prepared that they will be free to enter upon any line of work or further schooling that they may care to choose. Our rich social heritage and the opportunities of our modern civilization must be made available to all children. We object definitely to the idea of restricting or narrowing the education of country boys and girls to the end of keeping them on the farm.

This does not mean, however, that the rural school should be like city school, or that the children should have the same curriculum. *In many respects it means quite the opposite.* The school is to teach the child the things he does not learn outside of school. It is also to teach him in terms of his own experience, and by means of the life about him. Because a rural child's experiences and environment are different from those of urban children, the rural curriculum must differ from the curriculum for city schools. Local geography, local history, activities leading to civic habits and attitudes, the essential sanitary practices, will all be characteristic of the local community. The urban children must be taught to understand and appreciate the joys and hardships, the opportunities and responsibilities, and the distinctive social service of rural people. But the rural child must also learn the same lesson in regard to urban folk, their life and work, if a larger national community spirit is to be realized. To reach the common goal, rural and urban children travel different roads.

PURPOSE AND NATURE OF THE PRINTED COURSE OF STUDY

The second assumption is that the purpose of the curriculum is to insure for the child an education in keeping with the best present standards, and for the guidance and help of the teacher, to enable him to give his pupils the educational opportunity that should be theirs. While its primary aim is to serve the children, it does so mainly by guiding the teacher. The printed curriculum is his hand-book. It should render him every possible service. It must help him understand the purpose of school work—what things to teach in arithmetic, history, and geography; how to teach them best; how to divide the time; how to group the children; how to

arrange the classes. All such advice should be in accord with the best practice in each case. But this is not sufficient. Since it is made to help teachers, the curriculum must suit their needs. A curriculum may seem all right when viewed from some central office. It may be very helpful to the city teachers, with their single grades, their better training, their better teaching equipment, their library facilities, and their closer, more expert supervision. These are, however, no measure of its value for rural schools or of its fitness for rural children. To be acceptable to them it must be suited to the rural school needs and conditions, and be written so that the rural teacher can understand it and use it profitably. Does the present New York state curriculum fulfil these conditions?

EVALUATION OF THE PRINTED COURSE

Since in New York state there is but a single curriculum for both rural and urban children, those responsible for it evidently had in mind a common purpose for both. What this purpose is, however, one cannot tell, it is not stated—in fact, there seems to have been none clearly defined in the minds of those who prepared the course. The syllabi for the several subjects have been made out at different times by individuals or groups working independently. Consequently there are no fundamental principles which they all follow and no major ends to which all contribute. The several syllabi represent a random collection of facts, rather than carefully organized material selected with reference to a clearly defined educational purpose.

The general conclusion about the content and method is that they are out of date in the majority of subjects, and far too brief to be of much help to any teacher. They are particularly unsuited to rural children and the rural teacher, who are most in need of this service.

The greatest shortcoming is in the treatment of reading. Reading is a basic skill that all children should acquire. It is the subject which rural teachers handle most poorly. It is a subject in which rural children are especially deficient, yet this ability to read is fundamental to all of their other work. It is without doubt the subject in which a course of study could help the rural teacher most.

In spite of all this the state, in recently revising its work in English, omitted the teaching of reading. Consequently the only help on reading available through the course of study is a brief and ineffective treatment given in the 1910 syllabus.

The outlines for geography, history, arithmetic, and physiology are limited to a mere listing of names or topics. These subjects in no wise bring to the child their fullest contribution. The syllabi serve mainly to give the teacher a general idea of what to teach and what is likely to be included in the examinations. Advice as to teaching these subjects is very meager, and in many places not consistent with present accepted practices.

The syllabi on Elementary English and Literature and on Civics and Patriotism have been recently issued. They are much more modern in content and method. They should be quite helpful to the city teacher, but they are not suited to the conditions under which teachers in rural schools must work. The fact is that they were not made for the rural teacher or for rural children.

This criticism applies equally to every subject in the curriculum except the syllabi on nature study and physical training. The latter is the only one to devote a section specifically to rural and ungraded schools. In practically all subjects little attention has been given to the content most suited to rural children. Nearly all subjects are outlined as if a teacher were to have a class in each subject for each grade in which it is to be taught. If the curriculum were taught as it is outlined, a teacher with all eight grades would have between 50 and 60 classes per day. In the new syllabus on Civics and Patriotism this advice is given:

SUGGESTIVE TIME ALLOTMENT

First four grades	5 periods a week, twenty minutes each.
Fifth and sixth grades	3 periods a week, thirty minutes each.
Seventh and eighth grades	2 periods a week, forty minutes each.

If the rural teacher with eight grades attempted to follow this program, she would have to devote 740 minutes a week, or nearly 45 percent of the entire time, to teaching civics. This is merely an illustration of the fact that the curriculum is not suited to rural school conditions.

That the syllabi in history, geography, arithmetic, and physiology are so meager in content, formal in outline, and almost barren of help in teaching is especially deplorable when one is concerned with the rural schools. The needs of rural children and the rural teacher are many. The teacher is relatively poorly trained, the teaching equipment is meager, the reference books are few, supervision is limited. The curriculum for rural schools should be particularly rich in detail, offering abundant material, illustrations, examples, and suggestions if it would serve the teacher's needs and contribute largely to the education of rural children. In this respect the New York syllabus falls far short of its possible service.

Besides telling the teacher what to teach and how to teach it, the curriculum should give some assistance in planning the work. There is no better proof of the fact that the curriculum was not made with the rural school in mind than its failure to help here. The rural teacher faces some very practical questions, all of which vitally affect the educational opportunities of the children: How much time should be given to reading, arithmetic, spelling, history? When should the different classes recite? How can the work be arranged to reduce the number of grades and classes? What classes can recite together? What classes should come every day and what classes should not? The previous illustration from civics and patriotism indicates that something must be done to make it possible for the rural teacher to cover all the subjects. In solving these questions and many others which every teacher must answer rightly or wrongly, the state offers no specific help whatever. All have been left to the decision of the untrained, overworked country teacher.

As a result of the teacher's unguided efforts in using a misfit curriculum we find the following conditions existing: Among teachers with five grades the number of classes per day ranges from 17 to 32, with the median at 24; teachers having six grades vary in number of class from 16 to 37, with the median at 27; teachers with seven grades vary from 18 to 36, with the median at 26; teachers with eight grades vary from 24 to 38, with the median at 29. The average number of classes per day for all teachers in the one-teacher schools in New York state is 27.

As a consequence of this great number of classes the teacher cannot give much time to a class. Eight expert observers visited the schools and saw over 2000 recitations. This report is based upon 1321. Out of these 1321 classes, 7 were only one minute long, 18 were two minutes long, 34 were three, 14 were four, 150 were five, 11 were six, 34 were seven, 32 were eight, 8 were nine, and 423 were ten minutes in length. To summarize: 731 recitations, or 55 percent, were ten minutes or less long.

Partly because of the small number of children in each school, and partly because of the many subjects and grades, the classes are small. Of 1632 classes observed, 213 had only one child in a class, 269 had two children in a class, 233 had three, and 228 had four children in a class. Fifty-two percent of all classes have three or fewer children. Sixty-nine have four or fewer children.

From such facts it is evident that a teacher cannot be doing effective work. It is expensive to have a teacher teaching one to three children at a time for periods of from one to five minutes. She can teach more children better and they will stimulate and teach one another. The curriculum must facilitate, rather than hinder, an effective school organization.

In spite of the fact that the rural teacher has received slight consideration at the hands of the state department in the making of its curriculum, he is the one who is most dependent upon it. City schools under expert leadership construct their own curricula. The rural teacher, to quote the words of one, "gets practically no other help from outside authority or higher up." If the state department wished to render the greatest good to the greatest number, it should make a curriculum specifically serviceable to rural children and rural teachers.

USE OF PRINTED COURSE

Since we are chiefly concerned with the children in school, our study would be incomplete if we reported on the printed curriculum only. Our second task was to make a study of the way this state-issued curriculum is being carried out. What use are the teachers making of it? What are the children really studying?

These questions have been answered through questionnaires and

through visiting schools. A questionnaire was sent to the district superintendents. Out of 208, 180 reported. Three sets of questionnaires were sent out to teachers. The first concerned their use of the state curriculum. About 2000 replied to this. The second concerned their teaching equipment, library books, and supplementary readers. To this, 202 replied. The third concerned the amount of time given to the different grades and subjects. Approximately 200 have replied. While the number of teachers replying is small compared with the total number teaching, they represent all parts of the state; they include the good, the medium, and the poor teachers and schools. Consequently, what is true of them is likely to be true of all the one-room rural schools.

In addition to these questionnaires, a group of eight trained observers, chosen because of their special interest in and understanding of rural school work, spent about two weeks in the field studying the class work and talking to teachers. They visited approximately 250 teachers, spending about a half-day with each, and observed and reported upon about 2000 recitations.

Before reporting the results of these observations, a word needs to be said concerning the proper use of a curriculum. No matter how carefully it is prepared or suited to the rural school, it cannot be applied just as it is. Communities differ. Classes differ from year to year. Children's needs and interests vary. The teacher must use judgment in teaching the curriculum just as the doctor uses judgment in administering medicine. The latter does not give the same dose to each person. He suits the medicine to the patient. So must the teacher. We must suit the work to the children and the community from day to day.

The printed curriculum does suggest that the teacher use judgment in adjusting it to each particular school. To help in this, however, it gives little specific aid. The fact is that the teacher has little freedom in adjusting the work to the pupils. He has no voice in judging them. Continually facing the grade and preliminary examinations,¹ he is practically helpless. He must, to gain the approval of patrons and supervisor, prepare the children to meet these examinations successfully. Doing this in the present cum-

¹ These are usually known as the Regents examinations.

bersome organization takes the entire time of all but the very best rural teachers. This situation and the authoritative spirit of the state department, in spite of the few printed statements to the contrary, have tended to develop a passive attitude on the part of the teachers. The rural teachers were asked whether they omitted any of the work as outlined in the syllabus or whether they made any additions. Many teachers have made such changes in order to make the work more practical and more interesting to the children, but the following are the more common answers: "I try to follow the syllabus." "I thought I had to teach all." "All is necessary to pass the examinations." "The syllabus is complete."

The task of the district superintendent is to further the efficiency of his teachers and the education of the pupils under his charge. The curriculum should be to him a means of giving help to the teacher. Its formal and barren quality is partly indicated by the fact that its greatest value to them is in checking the work of the teacher and pupils to see if they are advancing in accordance with the specifications. It is true that the uses the teacher and supervisor make of it may be due partly to their lack of training. Even though that be so, the state should be aware of this fact and construct and administer the curriculum so as to insure, in so far as possible, its proper use.

THE ACTUAL COURSE

After all, we are primarily concerned with the things that are taught to the children and the way they are taught. To answer this question the eight observers referred to previously, all familiar with rural school work, reported upon about 2000 recitations. Not all the answers will be of interest to those for whom this report is made, but the following facts will be significant:

A good teacher to-day will see that when a child is studying a lesson he does not confine himself just to the text-book, but will often refer to other books and to his other lessons and out-of-school experience. In the 1343 lessons used in this report, there were only 42 recitations in which children mentioned things learned in other books besides the text, and only 102 recitations in which they mentioned their outside experiences in connection with the lesson.

The teacher should put forth every effort to get the child to see the relation between the things learned and the affairs of his daily life. Only in this way will the facts that he learns do him much good. In New York rural schools the teacher does very little of this. In only 188 out of the 1343 recitations did the teacher apply the lesson to the children's experience.

Text-books are necessarily brief and formal, and cannot be very rich in detail. The teacher should be able to add something from his own experience and the dry facts of the text. If the children were reading of a mountain, he might tell of climbing one. If they read a poem, he could relate some incident in connection with it. This would make the lesson much more real and meaningful, and would be one of the big contributions of a teacher. In the work observed the teacher made some such additions to the lesson in only 100 recitations out of 1343.

In practically all the work observed the teacher drills the children upon some facts they were supposed to memorize or calls upon them to recite what is in the text. They add nothing, he adds nothing. They do not apply it to their own experiences, and neither does the teacher. He then assigns the next lesson in the book and sends them to their seats to memorize the text for the next recitation. Sometimes he puts some work on the board, sometimes they take the lesson over. Often they do not study the text-book, but study a Regents "review book" instead. But whatever they study, their task is the same. They learn the lesson and recite it to the teacher.

I hasten to add that this is not true of every school. Some of our rural schools are providing the children with more modern education, but they are few. There would probably be not more than five in 100.

You may ask what this has to do with the curriculum. This is the curriculum these children are following every day. One cannot say just how much the printed state curriculum, the Regents examinations, and the state's attitude toward local initiative in using the syllabi are responsible for this. It is the belief of the writer that they are largely responsible, both through what they have done and what they have failed to do.

RECOMMENDATIONS

As a means of improving existing conditions, the following proposals are offered for consideration:

1. The present curriculum is largely out of date and not suited to rural school conditions and needs. A new curriculum should be prepared, in keeping with present educational standards and modern principles and practices. This should be constructed with particular reference to rural school conditions and to the resources and needs of rural children.

Such a course should be closely related to the actual lives the children are now living and to the life problems they may normally be expected to meet. In accordance with this idea, and as an illustration of it, the problems of home making should find a larger place in the curriculum. These questions should receive attention in arithmetic, civics, hygiene, and art. Whenever the size of the school makes it possible, larger specific provision should be made for this topic in a general course in industrial arts.

2. In order that the necessary local adjustments essential to a good curriculum be made, the printed course should specify the ends to be attained, and give abundant suggestions and help as to means of realizing them. The state should institute a program of leadership in developing initiative on the part of intermediate officers and teachers in studying local needs, in utilizing local resources, and in suiting the state curriculum to their pupils and community.

3. Ability to read intelligently and easily is the most fundamental contribution of the elementary school. The report on "Educational Product" shows that rural children are more backward in reading than in any other subject. Since the curriculum in New York state gives rural teachers practically no help in teaching reading, special attention should be given to this subject not only in providing help on subject matter and method, but also in arranging the work so that reading will receive the emphasis it deserves.

4. The present type of examination should be changed to accord with modern standards in content and method, and to permit and foster local initiative in adjusting the curriculum to local conditions and in carrying on experimental work. Less emphasis should be

given to examinations from the state office, and more responsibility should be placed upon the intermediate officer and the local teacher for determining the status of any child.

5. In order that this new curriculum may be actually realized, greater attention should be given to the preparation of rural teachers. Work should be organized in training institutions which would prepare them, as fully as is possible, for a critical evaluation of educational practices, for a careful diagnosis of educational situations to determine educational needs, and for the exercise of initiative and judgment in using educational materials to meet those situations.

6. Such a program necessitates also that intermediate supervisory officers, of superior professional training, initiative, and leadership, be selected to direct the activities of teachers in testing proposals, in applying wisely the recommendations of the curriculum, and in discovering further economic and effective educational procedure for their schools.

7. In constructing this basic rural curriculum provision should be made by the state department for utilizing the experience and judgment of all who are concerned with the problem of rural education. Conferences of state officers, district superintendents, teacher-training instructors, and rural teachers should be held, and the field carefully discussed. Committees, specially fitted, should prepare the various sections. All reports should be again generally discussed, critically evaluated, and, in so far as possible, tested in actual school-room situations before being issued.

8. This curriculum should not be looked upon as final or fixed. In order to promote its adjustment to local communities and to promote constructive work on the part of officers of the intermediate unit and rural teachers, it is recommended that some one in the State Department of Education be specifically appointed to exercise leadership in this field and to direct the work of continued revision and improvement. He should be responsible for the following activities:

- (a) A careful study of the results of research work in education.
- (b) For keeping in touch with improvements made in the actual school work in other states.

- (c) For stimulating supervisory officers of the intermediate unit and teachers to test in actual practice not only the contributions from schools of education and from other states, but also the recommended state curriculum.
- (d) For promoting, on the part of the intermediate unit, supervisory officers, and the teachers of the state, continued exercise of initiative in diagnosing the educational needs of specific communities in selecting subject matter, and in developing methods of utilizing such subject matter to meet these educational needs.
- (e) For revising this state-issued curriculum in keeping with the results of educational research and in keeping with the results of local experience in adjusting the curriculum to local conditions, resources, and needs.

9. The foregoing recommendations are offered to guide procedure in improving the present situation under present conditions. The *most acceptable* curriculum and procedure in conducting it would vary somewhat from this. Elementary education is a means of promoting the socialized growth of the individual. Its aims and values must be determined finally by those responsible for protecting, promoting, and coördinating the interests of all and for furthering social progress. In our country this task devolves upon the state. The state must, therefore, determine the major objectives and purposes of education.

Education is to produce specific changes in individual pupils. The curriculum is a means to that end. What these changes are will vary with the individual and the community. The content of the curriculum and the method of procedure will vary more or less in different schools in the state. Common courses of study for all schools, whether in country or city, evidently will not be best for both.

When rural education is conducted as it should be, the trained teacher, who is clearly conscious of social values and educational objectives, will diagnose local conditions, determine the local educational resources and needs, select subject matter, develop method, and organize school activity. In some respects these needs would be common throughout the state, in some cases com-

mon to a certain region, in some cases peculiar to some particular community. The curriculum, if it is to be suited exactly to the conditions and needs of children, must be constructed by those who know the child and his environment.

In this the local teacher should receive every possible stimulus and assistance from the supervisory officers of the intermediate unit. They in turn should receive the same from the state. The entire educational force should work to help the teacher provide for his children educational experiences finely adjusted to their interest and needs, and of such a nature as to promote the fullest individual development and to make them efficient in meeting their many responsibilities.

CHAPTER VI

THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL

ORGANIZATION, ADMINISTRATION, AND SUPERVISION

IN OCTOBER, 1920, there were 609 rural high schools in the state, approximately two-thirds of them being fully accredited four-year schools, and one-third offering less than four years of accredited work. Over 70 percent of these schools were situated in places of 1000 or less population; 84 percent had an enrolment of less than 100 pupils, and over one-half had an enrolment of less than 50. The four-year high schools, with a pupil enrolment of less than 100 drew approximately one-third of their pupils from rural homes. These schools would seem to offer the real problems of high school training for rural pupils, both from the fact that they have the highest percentage of rural pupils enrolled and because they, with the partially accredited schools, comprise practically seven-eighths of all the rural high schools.

The study of the New York rural high schools shows that the percentage of pupils reaching the third and fourth years is considerably lower than that for the rural high schools of the United States as a whole. It is very similar to the percentages in the last two years for all the high schools of New Jersey, and is materially lower than in the case of New Hampshire. Compared with the schools of Connecticut, with a pupil enrolment of less than 100, or with the schools of Massachusetts with a pupil enrolment of less than 200, the New York rural high school shows in both instances a smaller percentage of pupils retained in the last two years. A comparison with all New York high schools indicates a greater holding power of the rural high school over the city high schools of the state. The number of pupils graduating for each 100 entering high school is considerably higher in the rural high school than in the city high

school, and slightly lower than in the case of high schools situated in villages having superintendents. The percentage of pupils over eighteen years of age in each year of high school work is high. In schools with an enrolment of less than 50, the relative percentage of boys is very low, especially in the last two years, indicating that these schools do not hold boys. In schools with an enrolment of more than 50 the relative percentage of boys and girls is very similar to that for rural and village high schools for the United States as a whole.

TABLE 11.—A STUDY OF ENROLMENT BY YEARS OF THE PUPILS IN THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS AS COMPARED WITH THE PUPIL ENROLMENT IN CERTAIN EASTERN STATES AND WITH THE UNITED STATES AS A WHOLE. THE DISTRIBUTION IN EACH YEAR IS SHOWN ON THE BASIS OF A TOTAL HIGH SCHOOL ENROLMENT OF 100 PUPILS

Type of School	First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth Year	Fifth Year
609 rural high schools, New York (1919-20).....	41.51	26.85	17.69	12.81	1.12
All New York high schools (16-17)....	43.8	26.6	17.2	11.3	1.20
54 rural high schools offering vocational courses.....	40.25	27.75	18.41	13.59	..
Connecticut high schools with enrolment of less than 100 pupils (1920-21).....	40.2	26.4	17.4	15.5	0.50
Massachusetts high schools with enrolment of less than 200 pupils (1916-17).....	36.5	26.8	20.8	15.9	..
New Jersey high schools (1917-18)...	42.6	26.4	17.3	13.5	..
New Hampshire high schools (1915-16).....	40.0	24.8	19.1	16.0	..
Rural high schools of the United States (1917-18).....	38.9	27.1	19.6	14.4	..

ORGANIZATION.—With respect to its daily program, the New York rural high school is prevailingly organized on a basis of eight recitation periods a day, but with a considerable percentage of the smaller schools having nine or more periods. In general, the periods are forty minutes in length, though here again many of the smaller schools use periods only thirty-five minutes long. All findings point definitely to the fact that there is a strong tendency to divide the high school day into an excessively large number of recitation

TABLE 12.—THE NUMBER OF GRADUATES FOR EACH 100 PUPILS ENTERING HIGH SCHOOL¹

Type of School	First Year Pupils, 1916	Graduates, 1920	Continuing Education, 1920
Cities and villages having superintendent	100	25.82	14.27
Rural high schools	100	31.94	18.89
Rural high and senior schools	100	30.99	18.25
Villages having superintendents	100	32.30	14.42

TABLE 13.—A STUDY OF THE RELATIVE PERCENTAGE OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN THE DIFFERENT YEARS OF THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL (403 SCHOOLS)

Type of School	First Year		Second Year		Third Year		Fourth Year	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Schools offering less than four years' work, 1 to 49 pupils	43.2	56.8	36.6	63.4	32.9	67.1	27.3	72.7
Full four-year schools, 1 to 49 pupils	44.9	55.1	39.7	60.3	37.2	62.8	34.8	65.2
Schools, 50 to 99 pupils	45.2	54.8	42.0	58.0	38.0	62.0	36.9	63.1
Schools, 100 to 149 pupils	44.4	55.6	42.6	57.3	41.9	58.1	38.5	61.5
Schools, 150 and more pupils	45.0	55.0	41.1	58.9	41.8	58.2	36.3	63.7
All the 403 rural high schools	44.8	55.2	41.2	58.8	39.4	60.6	36.7	63.3
54 rural high schools offering vocational agriculture	47.0	53.0	42.0	58.0	42.6	57.4	37.8	62.2
Village and rural high schools of United States (1917-18)	43.8	56.2	41.3	58.7	39.4	60.6	36.8	63.2

periods, these periods in many schools being too short for efficient high school work. The daily teaching load of the principal is

¹ Statistics from Assistant Commissioner in Charge of Secondary Education.

higher than that recommended by many states as the maximum for high school teachers. The teaching load of rural high school teachers in the state is approximately one recitation period a day more than is permitted high school teachers in accredited high schools in the eighteen states following the standards of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, or than is recommended as the maximum by many state departments of education.

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION.—The principal of the rural high school in New York state is also the principal of the elementary grades. This plan of organization makes his work complex and difficult, and requires time for administrative and supervisory duties, if the school is to do efficient work. In spite of this fact the average principal in schools with a high school enrolment of less than 50 pupils teaches six periods a day and many of them seven and eight periods. One-half the principals in all rural high schools teach five periods or more a day. Over 75 percent of the principals have no clerical assistance, which means that these principals devote much time to routine office work that might well be done by a full- or part-time clerk. This lack of clerical assistance operates definitely in two ways—both hinder the efficiency of the school: (1) in the keeping of inadequate and poorly filed pupil and school records; and (2) in taking the time of the principal that should be given to planning and supervising the work of the school. The result is that a large proportion of the principals have but little time for the supervision of the work of their teachers and of the pupils or for consultation with pupils, parents, or teachers.

All findings show that the principal, except in the larger schools, is regarded primarily as a class-room instructor, and that his position as the administrative officer of the school is indefinite and vague. Frequently the teachers do not recognize his authority as the director of the school and its various activities. Twenty-five percent of the principals have no voice in the selection of their corps of teachers. As a result, they are often hindered in making the best adjustment of the teaching load, and are, furthermore, deprived of one of the most useful powers of an executive. As a result of the indefinite status of the principal and of the heavy teach-

ing load of both principals and teachers, particularly in the smaller schools, much less attention is given to the supervision of the pupil's work and to the direction of pupil activities than is desirable. Another result is the insufficient attention given to the organization of the school and to meetings and conferences of high school teachers for the consideration of their teaching problems and of problems related to the encouragement and control of the general activities of the school.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

A present tendency of great importance in secondary education is to extend certain phases in modified form into the upper elementary grades. One of the main purposes back of this movement is to effect a better adjustment of the school to the abilities, interests, and needs of the pupil between the ages of twelve and fifteen. An important result should be the closing of the gap between the elementary school and the high school, and a reduction in the number of pupils lost in the seventh and eighth grades and the first year of the high school. Approximately 75 percent of the rural high schools in the state have moved one or more high school subjects into the upper grades, and a considerable number of schools are using in part promotion by subject and departmental teaching. These are undoubtedly steps in the right direction. In general, however, the subjects introduced into the grades have not been modified to meet the needs of the younger pupils. In the main, they have been those subjects exacting the highest percentage of failures among high school pupils, as algebra, Latin, and biology. The most frequent reasons given by principals for the changes are that more time is thus made available for the subjects, and that the percentage of pupils passing the Regents examinations is thus raised. It would seem that the subjects at present most often placed in the grades are little suited, at least as organized, to promote a better adjustment or to meet the needs of the larger proportion of pupils of rural communities.

The junior high school developed, in line with its fundamental principles, undoubtedly has great value for rural communities. It should be of especial value to those communities too small to maintain more than one or two years of regular high school work.

Among other things it will give rural pupils earlier some phases of high school training adapted to their abilities and needs; it will bring them in touch with more than one teacher; it will make possible better library and laboratory facilities. It should also tend to remove the natural stopping-point at the end of the eighth grade, and make the transition from the elementary school to the high school easier.

Data based upon a report to the Assistant Commissioner for Secondary Education in regard to the junior high school indicate that in February, 1921, only 14 rural high schools had reorganized on the junior high school plan of handling as a group the pupils of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. Of these 14 schools, only three had a junior high school in the real sense of the term. The other 11 followed in general the regular state syllabus for the seventh and eighth grades and took up the regular high school work in the ninth. It is thus evident that little progress has been made in the development of the junior high school in rural communities in the way of curricula, courses of study, or types of organization. It should be noted that for several years a committee on junior high schools has been working with the State Department on the problems involved in the junior high school plan of organization.

INSPECTION

The State Examinations and Inspections Division, as evidenced by its written records of inspections made, has earnestly aimed at both the inspection and the supervision of the rural high schools. All findings, however, indicate that the attention of the division as concerns inspection and supervision has tended to gravitate toward the larger high schools. This is evidenced by the fact that many of the larger high schools received as many as three to six inspections in 1920-21. On the other hand, the inspections of over 100 of the smaller rural high schools were made by the district superintendent. A large proportion of these inspections were made late in the year.

All findings indicate that the work of the Examinations and Inspections Division, as concerns inspection and supervision, is

primarily inspectional in character. This is probably as it should be. As a helpful supervisory agent, at least so far as concerns the rural high school, it functions to only a small extent. Its organization on the plan of subject specialists tends definitely to decrease the possibility of its helpfulness to the rural high school, where some of the most pressing problems are those of organization, and where the teacher needs help of the most practical kind in the teaching of several subjects. The fact that the division finds it impossible to visit schools at all frequently, and also the fact that it delegated the inspection of over 100 of the rural high schools, indicates that, as a supervisory agent, it is failing where help is most needed—in the smaller and weaker high schools. A definite organization, designed to bring supervision nearer the rural high school, and capable of giving frequent supervision resulting in assistance to the teacher offering instruction in two to five different subjects, is much needed. There is an equal need of helping the principal in his problems of administration, organization, and supervision.

BUILDINGS

All findings show that, while some of the rural high school buildings and their equipment and grounds are adequate for meeting the demands of modern high school training, the greater proportion are below any satisfactory standard. Approximately 80 percent have no gymnasium; 75 percent have no auditorium, and one-fourth have a play area of less than one-fourth acre. Laboratory and library facilities are in the main inadequate for the work of the high school of to-day. Conservatively speaking, with respect to laboratory and library equipment, the rural high school of New York has only half what it should have if its pupils are to have advantages comparable to those of the pupil in the city in those phases of work dependent for their successful pursuit upon the library and upon the science laboratory.

THE REGENTS EXAMINATION SYSTEM

Every angle of approach emphasizes the fact that the system of uniform state examinations in force in the state is an important factor in the administrative problems of the rural high school.

The excessively high percentage of failures each year fills the classes with repeating pupils and requires the organization of additional classes in some of the subjects. With an already overburdened teaching staff, this often results in a daily program illy proportioned and more extensive than can be handled effectively. It tends to reduce the high school teaching to the hearing of classes only, and prevents the giving of attention to the pupil activities and interests so essential to genuine high school life. This tends to decrease interest in the school and to increase the problem of school control and discipline. Desire to reduce the proportion of failures tends to encourage the elimination of weak pupils from various subjects. All tends definitely toward the emphasis of those phases of work of most doubtful value to the rural high school pupil and discourages the adaptation of the school to local conditions and to the needs of its pupil population.

The fact that the papers of pupils expecting to graduate are not returned until after graduation has encouraged in many schools modes of procedure of questionable soundness and often unfair to the pupil concerned. It would seem that the pupil who has done practically four years of high school work should know, within reasonable limits, at least a month before the day of graduation, whether or not he will be graduated. In fact, the Assistant Commissioner in charge of secondary education, then Head Inspector, made, in his report of 1897, a recommendation looking in this direction. Again, a pupil who takes an examination in a subject for the teaching of which the local school is not accredited is required to make a higher grade by 15 percent than the pupil who has received his instruction in an accredited high school. This requirement would seem to be of questionable soundness. Finally, the system as a whole operates at the expense of the pupil, and especially in the case of the pupil of the rural high school of the state, with its poorer equipment and less experienced teaching force.

THE TEACHING STAFF

The study of the rural high school teaching staff is based upon the data from 416 principals and teachers composing the teaching corps of 123 rural high schools, distributed over 43 counties.

While the data are from only approximately one-sixth of the rural high school principals and teachers of the state, they represent a random sampling from all types of schools. Consequently it is assumed that things true of the group studied are true with respect to the teaching staff of all the rural high schools of the state. The soundness of this assumption in this case is supported by the fact that 63 questionnaires received after the first 353 had been tabulated resulted in no material change in any item. It is further strengthened by the fact that the academic training of the 416 studied agrees very closely with that of 2387 rural high school principals and teachers of the state in 1919-20.

SEX AND AGE

Approximately 70 percent of the rural high school teaching staff of the state are women. Exclusive of principals, of whom 81 percent are men, approximately 91 percent are women. One-half of the principals are thirty-three years of age or under, and one-fourth are twenty-eight years or under. One-half of the teachers are twenty-six years old or under, and one-fourth are twenty-four years or under. In other words, the rural high school teacher on the average is a year and a half younger than the elementary teacher in the two-teacher schools of the state. Practically 56 percent of the principals, as compared with 31 percent of the teachers, spent their early life in the country.

EXPERIENCE

With respect to teaching experience, one-half of the principals have had nine years or less, and one-fourth five years or less. One-half of the teachers have had three years' experience or less and approximately one-fourth are teaching their first year. All findings point to the fact that a large percentage of the teachers in the rural high schools are young and inexperienced.

TRAINING

About 60 percent of the principals are college graduates, between 5 and 6 percent having done some graduate work. Approximately,

another 10 percent have had one year or more of college work. Approximately one-fifth have completed a normal school course, and an additional 3 percent have had some normal school training. One-tenth have had no regular academic work above the high school. The proportion of teachers having college degrees is somewhat higher than in the case of principals, approximately 65 percent being college graduates and 9 percent having had one or more years of college work. Approximately one-fifth are graduates from normal schools and one-twelfth have had a high school training or high school plus one year in a high school training class. More than one-third of the principals and teachers have less academic training than is generally regarded as the standard for high school principals and teachers, the standards of the 18 states in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and California being cited as examples.

SALARY AND PERSONS DEPENDENT

One-half of the principals received in 1920-21 a salary of \$1750 or less, while one-fourth received \$1500 or less. One-half of the teachers received \$1200 or less and one-fourth received \$1100 a year or less. Approximately 60 percent of the principals had one adult entirely dependent upon them for support and 35 percent had one or more children. Of the teachers, approximately 7 percent supported one adult and 3 percent one or more children. Approximately 18 percent of the principals were partially responsible for the support of one or more persons and 20 percent of the teachers were so responsible.

PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

All findings indicate that the principals and teachers of the rural high schools as a group give a small amount of time to professional improvement. This statement is based on reports as to attendance at summer schools, as to professional reading done during the year 1920-21, and as to membership in teachers' organizations. It is supported also by the replies of 384 high school principals in regard to teachers' reading circles in their schools. Only 23 principals reported teachers' reading circles in 1920-21.

CLASS-ROOM INSTRUCTION

One of the important factors in determining the efficiency of any school or type of schools is undoubtedly the work of the class-room teacher. To give an adequate picture of New York rural high schools it was deemed necessary to make a careful study of a comparatively large number of recitations in a considerable number of schools and in a fairly wide range of subjects.

For making this study a plan was formulated, tested out by actual use in the observation of instruction in several subjects in a few high schools, and then revised to eliminate, in so far as possible, its weaknesses. A staff of seven persons, all of whom had had broad experience in directing and supervising high school instruction, was selected. This staff met and gave a day to a careful analytical study of the plan and to training in its use. Definite written instructions were given each person as to the methods of observation and the recording of data.

This observation staff studied class-room work in 61 different rural high schools, located in every section of the state, and including all types, based on number of pupils enrolled. One hundred and seventy-nine recitations were observed, as taught by 144 different instructors in the subjects most commonly offered in the rural high schools. This data, when tabulated, showed remarkable agreement as to the predominant characteristics of the class-room instruction in the rural high schools of the state.

In brief, the following were the outstanding characteristics found. Many instances of teaching strong in certain respects were noted. Almost no time was wasted by instructors in beginning the work of the recitation. In the main the instructors were earnest and conscientious in their work. Sixty-six percent of the instructors observed gave evidence of definite preparation for the recitation and 34 percent had apparently made little or no preparation. In 26 percent of the classes observed the pupils were inattentive, and in approximately 25 percent they were disorderly. The most frequent causes for this condition, as given by the observers, were: Formal, lifeless treatment of the subject; lack of stimulation; no aim to the recitation; nothing for the pupils to do; lack of preparation on the part of the pupils; and, instructor took up all the time.

In practically one-half of the recitations observed only one minute or less was consumed in making the assignment for the following day's work. This means that practically no attempt was made to motivate the pupil by indicating the methods of preparing the lesson, by pointing out the important items in the assignment, in suggesting supplementary sources, or in giving stimulating problems or topics the consideration of which would have led toward the desired results.

Each subject was taught practically from a single text-book. Almost no supplementary materials in the way either of readings or of devices to make teaching more concrete were used. A large proportion of the work observed may be characterized as having been informational, with emphasis upon the memorizing of a mass of comparatively unorganized material. It lacked definiteness and immediacy of aim; in general, no real objectives stood out as the goal to be attained. But little of the teaching was of the type to stimulate pupils to initiative, to the evaluation of material, or to the assuming of personal responsibility for results. But little use was made of the assignment as an integral part of the teaching process. The work in the class-room, in the main, was formal and abstract.

THE CURRICULUM

Any discussion of the curriculum of a school or type of schools that is to be more than a mere cataloguing of facts as to existing conditions must be based upon principles underlying curriculum building. It must evaluate the elements of the curriculum in the light of the purpose which it is to serve, by the objectives in the attainment of which it is one of the predominant means. It is from this viewpoint that the present study of the curriculum of the rural high schools of New York is made and that suggestions for improvement are offered.

In the first place it is assumed that the rural high school is an institution maintained by the people of the community and state for the purpose of promoting and continuing in the individual of secondary school age the development begun in the elementary school. It is assumed also that it will be adapted in its work to the stage of maturity, interests, and capacities of its pupils, and that

its fundamental aim is the guidance and stimulation of the pupil in the development of his abilities so as to enable him to meet most intelligently and efficiently the demands of modern life, both immediately and later as an adult. In serving its ultimate purpose most economically and adequately as regards each pupil it is deemed evident that the curriculum will gradually become differentiated in the high school into two or more fairly distinct curricula, each built about a special core of subjects designed to meet the needs of particular groups of pupils. Each curriculum will, in addition, contain certain subjects closely related to the core, and certain subjects, constant for all high school curricula, regarded by society as desirable for all secondary school pupils.

In the second place it is assumed that the fundamental purpose of the high school is the same, whether it is situated in the city or in a rural or village community. In either case its ultimate aim is individual and social efficiency. Because of differences in the experience background of rural high school pupils as contrasted with city high school pupils, however, it is probable that, even for the attainment of objectives common to both types of high schools, differences in subject matter may be advisable. Because of differences in life purposes of the pupil population, it seems probable also that certain of the objectives of the rural high school may be peculiar to itself. In conclusion it seems that the problem of the rural high school is to attain most effectively the objectives of the secondary school, with the pupil population it has and with the life contacts which this pupil population possesses already and will need to make.

The basic principle, then, by which ultimately any unit of the educational system must be evaluated, is the extent to which, with the time and materials at its command, and with regard to the maturity and capacities of its pupils, it succeeds in developing persons individually and socially efficient. This principle implies the constant adjustment of the school to the needs and demands of the society by which it is maintained. It implies that the school exists for the training of the individuals whom it is designed to serve to meet, in the ablest fashion, their problems both while in school and later in life, and to realize life in its fullness.

THE EXISTING CURRICULUM.—The following percentages, taken with reference to the schools offering certain subjects and based upon the report to the State Department of the 609 rural high schools for 1919-20, show in brief the subjects receiving most attention in the rural high schools. This report shows that practically all schools gave a year of English for each year of work offered. Ninety-five percent of the schools gave Latin I; 92 percent Latin II; 56 percent Latin III; 75 percent gave French I; 69 percent French II; 10 percent Spanish I; and approximately 8 percent Spanish II. Ninety-nine percent of the schools gave elementary algebra; 64 percent intermediate algebra; 12 percent advanced algebra; 88 percent plane geometry; 20 percent solid geometry; and 10 percent trigonometry. A fraction over 77 percent gave ancient history and 76 percent American history. Three percent of the schools gave economics; none sociology; approximately 7 percent gave agriculture and 11 percent home making.

SUBJECTS REQUIRED FOR GRADUATION.—Three hundred and eighty-five schools reported as to the subjects required of all pupils for graduation. All those replying required four years of English. Over 36 percent of the 385 schools required Latin I; almost an equal percent required Latin II. Over 24 percent required French I, and practically the same percent required French II. Practically all the schools reporting required elementary algebra and plane geometry, while over 16 percent required intermediate algebra. Ancient history was required by over 30 percent of the schools reporting, and American history by all the schools.

ELECTIVE SUBJECTS.—The same schools reporting on subjects offered as electives showed that beyond the more formal subjects usually regarded as college preparatory there was practically no opportunity for election in the rural high schools. A pupil who did not expect to go to college could not get, in the majority of cases, subjects of more practical or immediate value to him. The electives were in the main in the foreign languages, in advanced mathematics, in physics and chemistry, and in ancient and modern European history. Three percent of the schools offered economics as an elective. Seventeen percent offered commercial arithmetic, and practically the same percent offered commercial geography.

Seven percent offered mechanical drawing. Other subjects, mainly of the commercial type, were offered by small numbers of schools. Agriculture and home making were offered by 6 and 11 percent respectively.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE PUPILS' TIME IN THE VARIOUS SUBJECTS.—A study of 184 rural high schools chosen at random from the schools of each class, classification being made on the basis of number of pupils enrolled, showed that the pupils' time and energy were given in the following percents to the various subjects. These percents are computed on the basis of all pupils enrolled in each subject, taking into account the number of periods given each subject per week and estimating each pupil's program as being four subjects a day.

TABLE 14.—PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS' TIME GIVEN TO VARIOUS SUBJECTS THROUGHOUT THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL COURSE

	Percent
English.....	23.67
Latin.....	13.01
French.....	6.74
Spanish.....	0.89
Mathematics.....	17.68
Physical sciences (physics and chemistry).....	2.91
Physical geography.....	0.70
Biologic sciences (biology, botany, zoölogy, and physiology).....	7.66
Foreign history.....	5.86
American history and civics.....	6.01
Economics.....	0.06
Sociology.....	0.00
Study of occupations.....	0.00
Agriculture.....	1.30
Home making.....	1.67
Mechanical drawing, wood-turning, machine-shop.....	0.48
Commercial subjects.....	5.99
Miscellaneous subjects.....	5.37

The above data indicate that over 44 percent of the pupil's time and energy are given to the study of languages, including English, or almost 21 percent excluding English. In other words, over one-fifth of all the time the rural boy or girl spends in high school is devoted to the study of a foreign language. Almost 18 percent of his time is given to mathematics, as compared with 11.27 percent given to all the other sciences. In other words, he gives more time to the study of mathematics than he gives to the natural

sciences and the social sciences; including American history and civics, but excluding foreign history. He gives as much time to the study of foreign languages as he gives to natural sciences, agriculture, and the social sciences, excluding foreign history.

All the data given and other facts not included in this report increase the doubt as to the degree to which the rural high school is serving the ends for which it should exist. All findings tend to emphasize a small number of outstanding characteristics with respect to the curriculum:

1. It is restricted in the main to the older, more formal, subjects of study.

2. The aim and objectives for the program of studies as a whole and for the separate subjects are vague and remote, except that the passing of the Regents examinations is an end prominent in the teaching of every academic subject.

3. The instruction in the subjects offered is formal and bookish, being unduly limited to a single text-book for each course.

4. There is a strong tendency toward a slavish following of the state syllabi, resulting in an undue uniformity of subject matter, with a consequent neglect of possible local adaptations, this condition being aggravated by a system of uniform state examinations.

5. There is too much attention given to preparation for examinations, resulting in general in over-emphasis of mechanical memorizing and in under-emphasis of the more vital elements of real intellectual development.

6. In general there is a lack of recognition of the educational values of extra-class-room activities.

7. And, finally, as indicated by the percentage of failures in all academic subjects in the rural high school, neither the subject matter nor the standards of achievement seem to be suited to the maturity and abilities of rural high school pupils.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The purposes, or objectives, of rural secondary education should be defined as clearly and specifically as possible.

2. It is suggested that those responsible for the administration, on the part of the state, of rural secondary education should utilize the

services of an advisory committee, composed of lay and professional people, in formulating these objectives and in determining upon methods of attaining them.

3. The curricula should be revised in the light of these objectives.

(a) This task should be recognized as a joint one for state, intermediate, and local units.

(b) The function of the state may be largely fulfilled by the preparation of syllabi that will contain, in general: (1) A statement of the objectives to be sought and suggested subject matter suitable for their attainment; (2) a broad outline of the possible content of the subject; (3) a statement of principles underlying the selection and organization of teaching content and of the most approved methods of presenting it; (4) suggestive lists of supplementary readings, sources, and educational materials valuable in the teaching of the subject.

(c) Particular attention should be given to a selection of the elements of economics, sociology, civics, etc., for the development of an intelligent citizenship, and to general science as a means for securing a vitalized introduction to all the sciences, and for its direct values for those who do not stay in the high school for any considerable part of the course.

(d) Less time should be given to the study of foreign language, and all work in foreign languages, whether ancient or modern, should be made elective for pupils not planning to enter college.

(e) Intermediate algebra, advanced algebra, and trigonometry, particularly the last two, should receive less consideration in the rural high school, and not more than one year of mathematics should be required of pupils not preparing for college.

(f) A course should be developed in the study of occupations as a means of acquainting pupils with the opportunities for vocational service and as a basis for guidance in the intelligent choice of a vocation.

(g) In general, more attention should be given to literary, debating, musical, athletic, and similar activities as an important supplement to regular class-room instruction.

(h) It is generally admitted that efficient home making is of basic importance in the welfare of the home and of good citizenship. For

this reason, and the further fact that a large percentage of the girls who attend high school will follow the vocation of home making, it is recommended that the desirability of establishing courses in home making in every rural high school in the state receive consideration. It is suggested that such courses be so enriched and broadened as to meet in the fullest possible manner the home and community needs. Students should be encouraged to take such courses and they should receive credit on the same basis as academic subjects. Emphasis should be given to the problem of getting colleges to accept work in this subject toward admission. Agriculture may well receive similar consideration.

4. The organization in the rural communities of junior high schools as the first unit in secondary education should be encouraged, and the state aid granted should be on the same basis as for regular high schools.

5. As a means of securing more favorable teaching conditions, the following suggestions are made:

(a) After 1927, or as soon thereafter as is feasible, the lowest certificate accepted for high school teaching should be the College Graduate Professional Limited Certificate, good for five years, and renewable for one additional term of five years, and requiring a minimum of twelve semester hours of professional training.

(b) Teachers' certificates should, so far as feasible, limit the number of different subjects for which the teachers are licensed.

(c) More attention should be given to providing buildings and equipment that will enable the rural high school to attain more nearly its objectives.

(d) More effective plans for teaching pupils how to study should be developed.

(e) The number of periods of instruction required of teachers should in many schools be reduced.

(f) The state should provide more adequate facilities for the training of both teachers and principals.

6. More favorable supervisory conditions should be provided.

(a) The state should confine its activities in this direction to inspection and to incidental supervision.

(b) The detailed supervision of class-room instruction and of

school organization should be in the hands of the professional officers of intermediate and local units, in accordance with the general plans outlined in the administrative section of this report.

(c) Certificates valid for high school supervision should require, in addition to other professional training, at least six semester hours in school administration, organization, and supervision.

(d) More specific definitions as to the high school principal's duties, powers, and responsibilities should be set up.

(e) In order that the principal may have time for supervision, the amount of teaching required of him should be reduced.

7. The state should encourage the constant improvement of rural high schools by providing one or more classes of standard schools in which minimum requirements should be set on such factors as number of teachers, maximum number of classes per teacher, buildings, equipment, and provision for supervision.

CHAPTER VII

THE NEW YORK STATE SYSTEM OF EXAMINATIONS AS RELATED TO THE RURAL SCHOOLS

I. AN OUTSTANDING FEATURE OF THE NEW YORK STATE SCHOOL SYSTEM

ONE of the features of the New York state system of public schools to which educational officers frequently refer with a good deal of pride is the system of examinations commonly known as the "Regents examinations." As a system, it is far more elaborate than that of any other state in the country. Such remarks as, "There is nothing like it in the country!" are often heard. This is true. In the number of examinations and in the number of pupils examined, in the number of persons employed in its conduct, in the cost in money and in time of school officers, the New York system goes much farther than any other state. North Dakota is the closest rival among the states. According to the Fifteenth Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1918, the total cost of maintenance of a system of "eighth grade and high school examinations was \$9,261.71." A report prepared by the Chief of the Division of Examinations and Inspections in the New York State Department of Education showed that the cost of maintenance of the division for 1918-19 was \$135,140. Subtracting the \$10,370 chargeable to professional examinations, and the \$34,870 representing salaries of field workers, we have \$89,900 as a figure fairly comparable with that above for North Dakota. In this figure are included the following items: Salaries of the executive group, salaries of the group handling teachers' and academic examinations, salaries of the group handling examinations for admission to study of professions, salaries of temporary examiners, temporary clerks and stenographers, proctors, expenses of examinations' committees, and

printing. The figure for 1920-21, comparable with the \$89,900 for 1918-19, was \$107,170. This indicates something of the increasing cost of maintenance. That there must be continued increase in size of appropriation for this division if the work of examining and inspecting is to be carried on as at present is clearly set forth by the director in the report referred to.

Hawaii and the Philippine Islands have more elaborate systems than any of the states other than New York. However, as long ago as 1916 the authorities in charge in Hawaii were moving in the direction of substituting the use of standard tests for the uniform old-type examinations. In the Twentieth Annual Report the Director of Education for the Philippine Islands, 1919, said:

"As has been said before, this office is not wholly in accord with the idea of giving uniform final examinations throughout the entire school system, but as yet, from a practical standpoint, this seems more desirable. To lessen the evil resulting from too much uniformity, sample examination questions are requested from all parts of the Islands to be sent to the general office, where a committee chooses suitable questions and gets them into final shape to be used in the schools. Care is taken to guard against too much favoritism, and attention is devoted to the selection of questions which really test a pupil's fitness for promotion. Since this procedure, even at best, is not entirely satisfactory, gradual steps are to be taken to decentralize the work of giving final examinations by placing some more of this work in the hands of division superintendents."

That the New York State Department of Education is looking in the direction of a less rigid system of examinations is indicated by the following facts:

1. Credit is granted on certificate for approved courses conducted in the schools in which no Regents examinations are held, and also for approved courses pursued by high school pupils outside of school.
2. Credit toward examination is given for oral work in modern languages and for the literature in the high school English courses when the instruction is given by approved teachers.
3. Credit is given on certificate for all advanced drawing courses, as well as for all courses in domestic science, agriculture, and shop work.

4. A special form of academic diploma has been adopted for technical high schools in which a large part of the work is accepted on certificate.

5. The new alternative form of academic diploma has been adopted, which may be used in approved schools and which requires examinations in but little more than one-half of the subject matter of the course.

It appears, however, that these provisions affect primarily the larger, better organized schools, and that they lie in the direction of reduction of the scope of examinations rather than in a modification of their essential nature.

The fact remains that we in New York state have something much more extensive than other states in the way of machinery for examining school pupils. Some questions naturally arise. Is it such as warrants the great cost in time and money? Granted, for the sake of the argument, that the ends sought are well worth the cost, are they achieved proportionately better than in other states and by other methods? Further, are there any undesirable effects which tend to offset whatever advantages there may be in the system? It is the purpose in this section to present some facts and figures on these questions.

II. BRIEF DESCRIPTIVE STATEMENT OF THE GRADE, PRELIMINARY, AND ACADEMIC EXAMINATIONS

While most school patrons and many others know more or less intimately how the New York state system of examinations operates, it seems worth while to make a brief statement descriptive of the three groups of examinations here considered, namely, the grade, preliminary, and academic examinations.

The grade examinations are prepared by a committee of district superintendents chosen by the Association of District Superintendents. The papers are edited, printed, and distributed by the State Department of Education. At present they include the subjects of reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, English, physiology and hygiene, spelling, drawing, nature study and agriculture, and history, representing the work of the fifth, sixth, and seventh grades, as outlined in the state elementary course of study. It should be

noted that these grade examinations are not issued by the State Department and are not strictly a part of the system of Regents examinations. Their use is not required by the State Department. On the other hand, those in the department responsible for examinations express themselves as not favoring these grade examinations. That they are commonly thought of by pupils, teachers, and patrons as having the sanction of the state educational authorities appears unquestionable. On the basis of an inquiry of district superintendents it can be said that the tests are in general, though not universal, use in the rural schools of the state. Their use in January is more general than in June, since many schools are closed at the time the question papers are issued in June. The answer papers are ordinarily rated by the teachers, but may be reviewed by the district superintendent.

The preliminary examinations were provided for by act of the Board of Regents in July, 1864, for the purpose of determining who should be classed as "academic" pupils, and therefore be counted in the apportionment of the Literature Fund. They have since that time been recognized as the most convenient means of determining admission to high school, and are now very generally used for that purpose. There is no requirement that they be so used. "Admission to high school may be determined by any superintendent or principal in some other way upon proper arrangement with the Department."¹ "Standings in reading and writing may be determined by principals on an examination set by the principal at any convenient time during examination week in January or June after the pupils have completed the work of the eighth grade."² From the time of institution of these examinations in 1865, "up to 1870, the examination papers were read and rated at the school and only results were reported to the Regents, but now the same difficulty arose as before. The standards of rating were different. Papers that would be claimed at one school would be rejected at another, and as a result it was ordered in February, 1870, that all papers that were thought to have reached a passing mark should be sent to the

¹ Tenth annual report of the State Department of Education, p. 433.

² University of the State of New York, Handbook 3—Examinations, 1920, p. 23.

Regents office for review."¹ This practice continued until 1905, when the plan was instituted of having the papers rated locally but sent to the Department subject to revision.² The questions for examination in spelling, elementary English, arithmetic, geography, and elementary history and civics are prepared by committees appointed by the State Examinations Board. In November, 1920, by action of the Board of Regents, the policy was adopted of "accepting in lieu of the preliminary certificate the credentials which the city school authorities issue on the completion of the work of the eighth grade as the equivalent of the preliminary certificate."

The academic examinations were instituted in June, 1878, in consequence of resolutions offered at the University Convocations of the years 1866 and 1871, and the legislation of June 6, 1877, in order to "furnish a suitable standard for graduation from academies and academic departments of union schools, and of the admission to the several colleges of the state."³ "When the academic examinations were first instituted in 1878, and for many years thereafter, the question papers for these examinations were prepared by the secretary of the Regents, with some little assistance which he was able to get from outside, and down to 1907 the papers were all prepared by members of the staff."⁴ Since that time they have been prepared by committees appointed by the State Examinations Board and reviewed by a committee of this board. The papers are rated locally and sent to the State Department of Education for review. The practice has grown up of accepting the ratings of the schools on a good many papers under conditions considered as offering assurance to the department that the rating is satisfactory. The table on page 111 indicates something of the growth and present magnitude of this phase of the examination system.

All three of these groups of examinations touch very closely the rural school as defined in this survey. As has been said, the grade examinations are designed especially for the schools outside of villages and cities. The pupils in the open-country schools find their admission to village and city high schools generally conditioned

¹ University of the State of New York, Bulletin No. 575, p. 10.

² Eighth Annual Report of the State Department of Education, p. 146.

³ Bulletin No. 575, p. 11.

⁴ Bulletin No. 575, p. 12.

upon passing the preliminary examinations. After admission to a high school the rural school pupil, of course, becomes subject to the academic examinations. A study of the rural schools of the state involves a consideration of this very important instrument in the administration of the schools.

TABLE 15.—SHOWING THE GROWTH AND PRESENT MAGNITUDE OF THE ACADEMIC EXAMINATIONS

Year	Number of High Schools and Academies	Total Number Papers Written	Total Number Papers Accepted
1878	94	2,934	1,126
1913	889	404,576	288,194
1920	975	466,628	330,226

III. THE EXAMINATIONS AS A MEANS OF STANDARDIZING THE WORK OF SCHOOLS

The chief purpose in all these examinations has been and is now the setting up of standards of achievement for schools and individual pupils, whether, as was originally the case, as a basis for apportionment of funds solely, or as now, as a basis for granting certificates of fitness for promotion and graduation. This appears clearly in the publications on the subject by the State Department of Education, and also in the replies received from high school principals and district superintendents.

That the state examinations in New York did at their inception aid and have since aided very much in making for a more uniform product in the schools will not be questioned by any one conversant with the facts. The position here taken is that, as at present conceived and conducted, they do not serve that purpose as well as it might be served by bringing them more nearly in line with modern scientific methods of educational measurement.

The facts at hand indicate clearly that this purpose is not achieved to the degree that is possible and in the way that experience has shown is most useful. Space will not permit here the presentation of the full argument in support of this statement. It will have to suffice to present only two outstanding factors, which,

on the basis of what is known of mental life, make very unlikely the achievement of a useful sort and degree of standardization of achievements of schools and of pupils by the methods employed, followed by some evidence of the actual working of the system.

1. UNSTANDARDIZED NATURE OF THE EXAMINATIONS.—The first factor is the unstandardized nature of the examinations. It is not possible for a small group of people, however well trained in the subject in question, to make an adequate examination on the basis of their own judgment, which shall have a known degree of difficulty as a whole and as to its parts. And yet this is implied when a test is used for purposes of standardization. In order to determine whether school pupils or schools reach a certain standard, that standard must be known. To say that all pupils who achieve 60 percent on an examination pass means nothing more than just that, unless the difficulty of the examination is known; that is, unless it is known, from previous examination of school children, how well they do on it. To illustrate: Suppose a set of questions be given to a large number of eighth grade pupils in one-room schools in various parts of the state, and it is found that only 50 percent of the pupils answer the questions with 60 percent accuracy. Then, if this test were given to the eighth grade pupils in a given school, it might fairly be expected that half of them would make this passing grade of 60 percent.¹ That is, the commonly accepted method of measuring achievements of pupils and schools is to use a test standardized in some such way. Such procedure is not at present followed in the examinations in question.

2. UNRELIABILITY OF RATINGS.—The other factor of the two suggested is the unreliability of the ratings given on answer papers to such examinations as those in question. That is to say, there is no certainty that the rating made on a certain paper by a given reader is the true rating. This is true of even the most carefully standardized objective tests, but the ratings are very much more unreliable in the case of examinations of the unstandardized nature of those in question. The unreliability of ratings has been so well

¹ Assuming the pupils of this grade represent average mental capacity for the grade. The need of getting a measure of mental capacity is another important matter in our examination of school-children.

established that it was thought not worth while to make a special study in this connection. The State Department of Education has recognized this fact of unreliability of ratings and has taken measures to guard against it. As early as 1870 the preliminary examination papers were sent to Albany to be rated. Since that time, however, chiefly because of the enormous burden of rating papers at Albany, the practice has grown of depending more and more on local ratings. Furthermore, those responsible for the rating of papers at Albany have exercised great care and considerable ingenuity in striving to make the ratings reliable. But the assumption that the ratings by the department readers are the true ratings is wholly unwarranted even when two or three readers rate the same paper, which, in the very nature of the case, cannot be done in any large proportion of the papers. It may be stated as a fact, for which ample evidence could be presented, that the ratings of answer papers for examinations of the sort in question are not reliable enough to justify the great reliance placed upon them as a basis for promoting or holding back pupils. The following is quoted from the work of a famous English statistician who made a careful study of the statistics of examination ratings, F. Y. Edgeworth:¹

" . . . in spite of conscious efforts to maintain constancy, it would not be unreasonable, I think, to assume a probable error of 4 or 5 percent, due to the factors under consideration. Thus, supposing there was no real difference between the papers in Mechanics of this year and the preceding, that the real average, so to speak, of both sets of papers was 150, yet in the sortition of examiners it is as likely as not that the average may be pushed up to 156 or down to 144."

He quotes Dr. Venn, "an experienced examiner, who is also one of the highest living authorities on statistics," as saying, "I have frequently raised or depressed my own marks (or my colleagues') by as much as 25 percent all through in order to bring them into general harmony."

In an investigation in which he had 28 well-qualified persons rate a Latin examination paper, he found "the probable error on either

¹ Examinations and Their Relation to Culture and Efficiency, P. J. Hartog, p. 109.

side of the correct mark to be 5." That is, assuming the correct mark to be the average of all the marks given, the chances are even that the mark by any one of the readers will differ from the correct mark by as much as five points out of the 100. Practically, this means that if a pupil receives a mark of 60, he is as likely as not to have a true mark of 55 or 65.

VARIATION IN PERCENT OF WRITTEN PAPERS CLAIMED BY SCHOOLS AND ACCEPTED BY REGENTS.—We have seen that the nature of the examination and the methods of rating are not such as to promote effectively the standardization of schools. We have further evidence in the actual working of the system. The reader is asked to bear in mind that standardization of the work of pupils and schools is sought through the use of examinations regarding which it is determined in advance that papers, to be accepted, must reach a given percent—60 on most examinations. The following are set down as propositions that will be accepted:

(1) The ability of school pupils in a given subject, say, beginning algebra, will not vary greatly for the whole state from year to year.

(2) The ability of teachers to teach this subject will not vary greatly for the whole state from year to year, except possibly at fairly well-defined intervals, as during the war, when some teachers of German were asked to teach Spanish and French with inadequate preparation.

(3) The subject matter taught will not vary greatly except at fairly well-defined intervals, the effects of which may be noted.

(4) It seems fair to assume that approximately the same percentage of pupils should achieve a passing grade in the various subjects of the school course if the work is adjusted to the needs of the pupils.

A study of the statistical reports on the Regents academic examinations reveals four important facts:¹

(a) The percentage of pupils writing examinations who achieve a passing grade varies greatly for the same subject from year to year. This may be seen from Diagram 3. This diagram shows for biol-

¹ From a study by Superintendent W. H. McClelland, of Perry, N. Y., to be included in full in a later report.

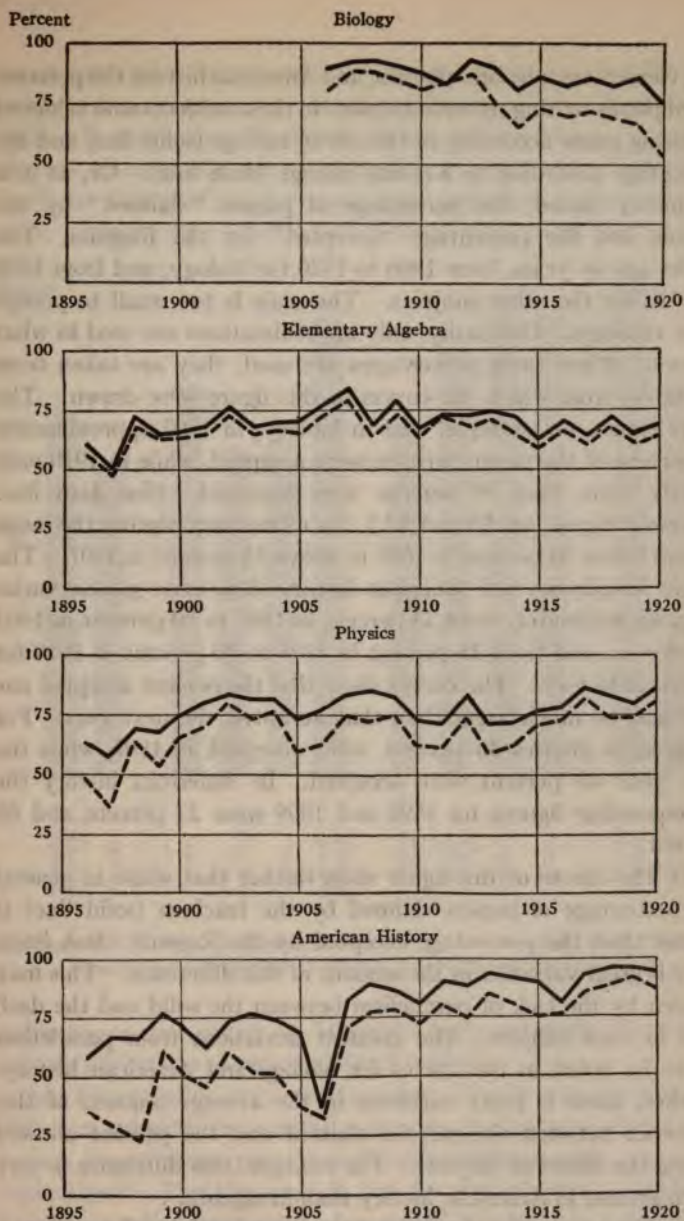


Diagram 3.—Showing the percent of those Regents examination papers written which were claimed by schools (solid line) and the percent which were accepted by the Regents (dash line) for four academic subjects, by years

ogy, elementary algebra, physics, and American history the percentage of pupils writing the examinations in these subjects who achieved a passing grade according to the school ratings (solid line) and the percentage according to Regents ratings (dash line). Or, as it is commonly stated, the percentage of papers "claimed" by the schools and the percentage "accepted" by the Regents. The entries are by years, from 1906 to 1920 for biology, and from 1896 to 1920 for the other subjects. The scale is too small to permit exact readings. Ordinarily, only approximations are used in what follows. When exact percentages are used, they are taken from the tables from which the curves of this figure were drawn. The figure shows, for example, that in biology, in 1907 approximately 85 percent of the papers written were accepted, while in 1920 only slightly more than 50 percent were accepted. (See dash line. The exact figures are 88 and 52.) In elementary algebra the range is from below 50 percent in 1897 to above 75 percent in 1907. The curves for physics and American history show even greater variation: approximately from 35 percent in 1897 to 80 percent in 1902 for physics, and from 25 percent in 1898 to 90 percent in 1919 for American history. The curves show that the percent accepted one year may be much larger than that accepted the next year. For example, in physics 36 percent were accepted in 1897, while the next year 63 percent were accepted. In American history the corresponding figures for 1898 and 1899 were 23 percent and 61 percent.

(b) The curves of this figure show further that while in general the percentage of papers claimed by the teachers (solid line) is greater than the percentage accepted by the Regents (dash line), there is great variation in the amount of this difference. This may be seen by the lack of parallelism between the solid and the dash lines in each subject. The greatest deviations from parallelism are to be noted in the curves for biology and American history. Further, there is great variation in the average amount of this difference between the percent claimed and the percent allowed among the different subjects. For example, this difference is very much greater in American history than in algebra.

(c) The percentage of pupils writing examinations who achieve a

example? Such, however, is not the case, as may be seen from Diagram 5. It shows the following situation:

In 1908	65	percent	were	accepted	in	elementary	algebra.
	88	"	"	"	"	biology.	
In 1914	65	"	"	"	"	elementary	algebra.
	64	"	"	"	"	biology.	
In 1920	63	"	"	"	"	elementary	algebra.
	53	"	"	"	"	biology.	

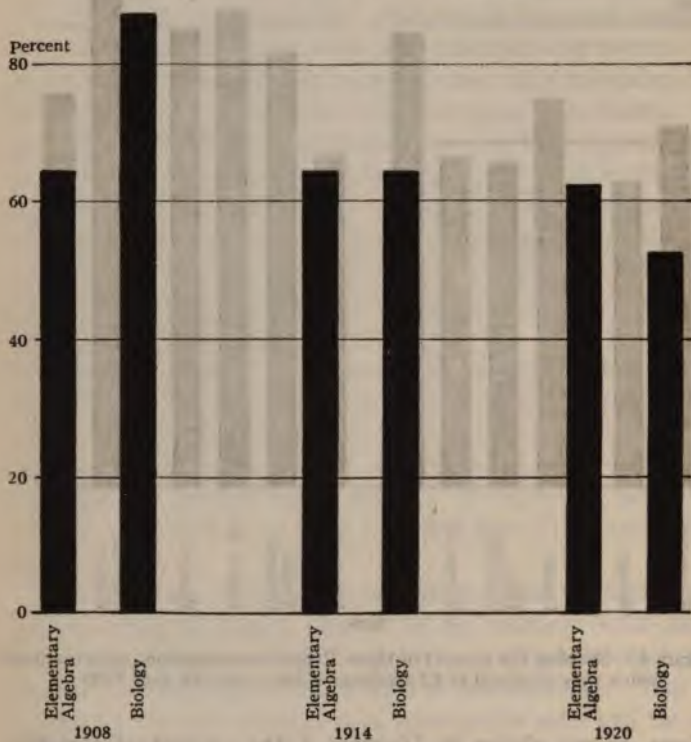


Diagram 5.—Showing the percent of those Regents examination papers written which were accepted in each of two academic subjects for each of three years

Thus it is seen that while in 1908 a much larger percentage were accepted in biology than in algebra, in 1914 approximately the same percentages were accepted in both; while in 1920 the situa-

tion was the reverse of that in 1908, an appreciably larger percentage being accepted in algebra than in biology.

We have here evidence that there is great variation either in the difficulty of the examinations from year to year and from subject to subject in terms of the percentage of pupils writing who achieve a passing grade, or great variation in the rating of the papers, or both. We have seen that, on the basis of our knowledge of mentality, variation in both is much to be expected.

It seems fair to conclude that the chief purpose for which the examinations are designed, that is, standardization of the work of pupils and schools, at present is not achieved in the useful sense of that term.

IV. OUTSTANDING FEATURES OF THE SYSTEM AS IT WORKS

1. COST IN TERMS OF TIME OF PUPILS.¹—If any manufacturer found it necessary to run his raw material through a long and expensive process, say a half-year or a year in length, a second time in order to get a satisfactory product, he might be expected to consider whether his machinery was working at its best, or whether he was setting too rigid a standard of satisfactoriness. The rural high schools of this state, reported in an extensive study representing a total enrolment of 36,337, had during the past year 22.3 percent of their pupils repeating at least one course once or more. Of this 22.3 percent, 18.4 percent were repeating once and the others two or more times. Fifty-four pupils were repeating the fourth time. In addition to the heavy money cost involved, this eventually results in delay of completion of the school course and entrance upon productive labor.

The table on page 120 shows further that the largest percentage of repeaters is in the schools with smallest number of pupils. For the schools with less than 50 pupils the percentages are 29.9 and 28.1 for the schools of less than four years and of four years respectively. In schools of 150 pupils and over, on the other hand, only 16 percent are repeating.

¹ For financial cost see Section I, this chapter.

TABLE 16.—SHOWING PERCENT OF PUPILS REPEATING AT LEAST ONE COURSE

	Less Than Four Years	Four Years or More				
	1-49 Pupils	1-49 Pupils	50-99 Pupils	100-149 Pupils	150 and More Pupils	All
Total enrolment....	966	7118	13,759	8829	5665	36,337
Percent of pupils repeating at least one course.....	29.9	28.1	23.7	18.6	16.0	22.3

It is significant to note in this connection that while New York ranks twenty-sixth among the states in the number of pupils enrolled in high schools per 1000 of population, she drops to thirtieth rank in number of pupils graduating at eighteen years of age.

Again, if a manufacturer has to scrap an appreciable portion of his material after much time has been spent working on it, he will feel the need of more careful scrutiny of raw material, inspection of processes and finished product. For the past decade approximately 30 percent of the pupils writing Regents examinations failed to achieve a passing grade. Note this does not mean that 30 percent of the pupils in the high schools failed to receive a passing grade, but 30 percent of those writing the examinations; and it is the well-known open practice in some schools to have only those pupils write who give promise of passing, even though others continue in the class through the term. It is like scrapping 30 percent of the finished manufactured product. Comparative figures show that in other school systems the percentage of *enrolled* students who fail ranges from 7 to 20 percent, with very few above 15 percent.

It may be urged that the product is so superior as to warrant the extra cost. Following are the results of a study of 328 Cornell University students who entered on the basis of Regents examinations and 223 who entered otherwise. The median (average) grade for the Regents group in the University was 73.7, and for the non-Regents group, 70.7. This difference is partially offset by the fact

that in an intelligence test the Regents group ranked one point higher. It would appear, therefore, that the difference in the product, assuming the system of examinations to be the chief factor, would not warrant the procedure followed at the great price paid.

2. EFFECT ON THE TEACHING IN THE SCHOOLS.—Reports by six practised observers who observed the whole of 145 recitations in 52 village schools in different sections of the state show that much of the teaching is devoted specifically toward preparing the pupils to pass the Regents examinations. In fact, this is such common practice that many teachers and principals would be surprised that any one should question the desirability of such a practice. Regents question-and-answer books are used much by teachers and pupils. High school principals and district superintendents, in answer to a question as to merits and defects of the system, make many statements such as the following: "They [the examinations] do not help in making the courses interesting, but encourage drill to pass an examination." There can be no doubt of the fact that the Regents examinations act as a strong stimulus to effort by teachers and pupils. The prizes are such as to appeal. The point here made, however, is that much of this activity is directed to the end of passing an examination at the cost of an understanding of the problems involved in subjects where understanding rather than mere acquisition of facts of a formal nature is the desirable end. That there may be much good resulting is not denied. That less emphasis on passing the examinations as the mark of achievement would, under proper teaching and supervising conditions, be desirable, is strongly urged.

3. ATTITUDE OF SCHOOL PEOPLE.—There seems to be an opinion prevalent that school people in general strongly favor the system of examinations. In reply to an inquiry addressed to high school principals, a total of 246 replies was received. Of those replying, 138 expressed approval and 108 disapproved. A similar inquiry was sent to the district superintendents. Of the 105 who replied, 85 approved the examinations in general and 20 disapproved. Sixty-seven offered constructive criticism, the most frequently mentioned being that the June examinations come so late in the year that many schools are closed.

It will be generally admitted that these figures probably overstate the true amount of approval and understate the amount of disapproval because of the hesitancy of most people to register disapproval of a long-established, much-revered institution. This is particularly true of those people who are intimately identified with its administration. There is a good deal of evidence that the examination system is regarded by many school people as a necessary evil, under existing conditions, particularly of many poorly prepared teachers and the lack of adequate, helpful supervision.

4. ATTITUDE OF RURAL PEOPLE.—The committee issued a booklet calling for suggestions from rural people relative to the improvement of rural schools. Among other specific questions asked were some relating to the system of Regents examinations. Up to date, 139 booklets have been examined, representing 4821 people from all parts of the state. In some cases the questions were answered by an individual. In most cases the answers represent the opinion of groups of people acting either as a body or through a representative committee. The results show that one-half of the people express approval of the examinations as they are, suggesting no change. The reasons given most commonly for favoring the examinations were that they keep up a standard and make for uniformity throughout the state, 15 percent offering the former and 19 percent the latter opinion. Essentially this means that 34 percent approve of them on the ground of their seeming to standardize the work of the schools. The reader is asked to note that this is an expression of a belief.

The other half disapproved of them as they are, either in whole or in part. Of this 50 percent who voice disapproval, 7 percent favor abolishing the examinations, 31 percent would have them materially modified, and 12 percent express their disapproval of certain features. Among these, the following stand out prominently:

- (a) Examinations should be more closely related to the work of the average rural school.
- (b) Children "cram" for examinations, to the detriment of other legitimate school procedures.
- (c) Children tend to lose interest in a subject after passing the examination.

(d) It is unfair to have young children take examinations in a strange school among strangers.

The most generally proposed constructive suggestion for improvement was that children should be rated wholly or in part upon their daily work. Of all reporting, 34 percent expressed this opinion. The following replies are quoted as typical of the constructive criticism offered:

"The Regents examinations have introduced a certain standard which is desirable, though probably the standard could be maintained in other ways. The examinations presuppose the dishonesty of the teacher; make no allowance for class-room work; place success in scholarship on an abnormal experience, where the pupil is under nervous strain and not able to do his best; provide no opportunity for pupils temporarily unable to take test under a half-year." (Representing 60 people assembled.)

"It would seem better to promote according to class work. Many pupils cram for examinations or fake. Then others are too nervous to do justice to an examination. Often questions are catchy, not essential to life's work, and unfair."

5. RELATION TO GRADUATION.—The fact that returns on the June examinations are not received before the date set for graduation gives rise to considerable embarrassment to pupils, parents, and teachers. Of 342 schools reporting, 198 grant school diplomas conditionally on the basis of school ratings the last semester. In a number of schools the practice is followed of permitting all pupils who would graduate on the basis of the school ratings to participate in the formal exercises, being given unsigned diplomas, to be signed later or not, depending on the ratings from Albany.

6. SOME UNFORTUNATE RESULTS.—Entirely apart from the question as to whether the system of examinations achieves its chief purpose of standardization of the work of pupils and schools, and apart from the question of the cost involved, there are some consequences resulting, the mere stating of which may be helpful.

(a) The success of the work for a term or a whole year is wholly dependent on the results of a single examination. That this is unfair is commonly recognized among teachers. The chance that a pupil poorly prepared may pass this single test, and, on the other hand,

the chance that a pupil well prepared may fail to do himself justice on a single test, is very great. Few of us would like to have our efficiency for the year determined in a three hours' trial. Further, the great injustice to the pupil who chances to be ill at the time of an examination, and therefore must delay taking the examination a half year or a year, is manifest.

(b) Many teachers and principals urge as one of the advantages of a state system such as this that "they (the examinations) relieve them of the pressure which would otherwise be exerted by certain parents for the purpose of getting their children through the school without the necessity of doing the work." "A great boon for teachers who might not care to take the responsibility of failing child of influential parents."

(c) The fact that the school ratings are reviewed at Albany affects school ratings in two ways, quite different each from the other, with consequent possibility of injustice to students.

One procedure in the schools is indicated by the statement of a teacher that she "follows the policy of giving 60 percent if the paper is near that, preferring to have the State Department fail the pupil." It seemed significant that this teacher stated she made few appeals from the Department rating, saying it seemed not worth while. The other procedure is to claim only those papers which are considered safely above the passing mark in order that few papers will be returned. To have few papers returned is much to the advantage of the teacher and principal, as this is regarded as a measure of teaching efficiency and of accuracy in rating. That some pupils may thus suffer injustice seems to be a secondary matter.

(d) The fact that teachers and principals are not considered capable of rating students' papers may be expected to have the effect of depriving teachers and principals somewhat of that respect for authority, on the part of pupils, which goes far toward making the proper relationship between pupil and teacher.

V. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The position here taken is essentially as follows:

The chief purpose for which the state uniform system of examinations is designed, standardization of the work of pupils and schools,

is not achieved, and in the nature of the case cannot be achieved by the methods employed. As a means of stimulating pupils and teachers to greater effort, a system of state-wide examinations of the kind in question is far inferior to skilful direction by local supervisors working with well-trained teachers. The cost of maintaining the system in terms of money, time of teachers and other school officers, and time of pupils, is not justified in the lack of evidence that the product—the trained boy or girl—is appreciably, if at all, superior to that of other systems. The system of examinations as at present conducted neglects to make use of some of the well-established means and methods of measuring the achievements of schools and school pupils, chiefly the standardized, objective test.

The following assumptions are made:

That there be effected a reorganization of the administration of the rural schools, involving:

1. A local school unit larger than the district school.
2. A unit intermediate between the local unit and the state, with large supervisory functions.

That steps will be taken to raise the standards of qualifications for teachers to such a point as will provide a teaching staff comparable with that of a good city school system.

It is recommended that:

1. The responsibility for the determination of the examinations to be used and the certification of pupils rest with the local school authorities, under the general supervision of the professional officer of the intermediate unit. This recommendation is made with the understanding that it will not go into effect until the minimum standards for entrance to the teaching service become operative, and until the reorganization of the intermediate unit is accomplished.

2. The State Department of Education provide a staff with service and research functions in the field of educational measurement, coöperating with the local and intermediate rural school officers.

Note.—Since the facilities of the Division of Examinations and Inspections would in very large part become released from the work

which now requires so much of their time, namely, the preparation of examinations and the reading of papers, they should become available for the purpose recommended above. New York state has here a unique opportunity to establish one of the most effective service institutions and research laboratories in the country without additional expenditure.

Attention is further called to the fact that there is at present in the Department of Education a specialist in educational measurement, functioning in very much such a way as is recommended, but under severe limitations. The work already accomplished in this office, recently established, gives some indication of the usefulness of this service.

CHAPTER VIII

RURAL SCHOOL BUILDINGS

FACTS REGARDING SCHOOL BUILDINGS

ARE school buildings heated in such a way that there is sufficient—but not too much—heat distributed so that all parts of the room are comfortable? Is there sufficient light, that children can study without eye-strain? Are windows so placed that there is no glare, no cross-lights, no shadows on the pupils' desks? Are the shades such that the direct rays of the sun can be shut out without at the same time shutting off much of the light? Are the toilets clean, well ventilated, and well lighted? Are they under the complete control of the teacher? Is there sufficient playground, so that the children have space in which to play those games that delight them?

The answers to these and similar questions are of vital concern to all, for they tell whether or not children are attending school under conditions that enable them to give full attention to their work and protect their health and their morals while there.

Since it was impossible to study all the rural school buildings in the state, 37 supervisory districts were selected as typical of all such districts. All the occupied school buildings in these supervisory districts were studied, so that altogether there were 1438 one-teacher, 77 two-teacher, 31 three- to four-teacher, 70 five- to nine-teacher, and 41 ten- or more teacher schools.

A schoolhouse is made up of a large number of factors—roof, windows, walls, blackboards, desks, closets, etc.—so that if one is to indicate just where conditions are satisfactory and where they are not, one must study each of these factors. This was done by means of a score card based on the same principles as the score cards for horses, cattle, and barns, with which most farmers are familiar.

In this way one is able to say to how many points out of 1000 any particular building is entitled, and to say that such and such factors need to be improved in order to provide a school building meeting modern standards. The score cards (two were used: one for the one- and two-teacher schools; another for the larger schools) were developed through the coöperation of a large number of persons familiar with school buildings and with modern hygienic requirements.

THE ONE-TEACHER BUILDING

In the one- and two-teacher buildings a distinction was made between certain factors that every reasonably good building should possess (for example, a certain amount of light, a certain sized playground, a modern stove), and certain other factors that the community that is really progressive will want because they represent the best feasible facilities. Thus it was found that the poorest one-teacher building studied received a score of $320 + 0$ (that is, 320 out of 1000 points required of a reasonably satisfactory building, and 0 points beyond these), while the best received $962 + 98$ (that is, 962 out of 1000 points required, with 98 additional points). This latter score means that while the building has some unusually good features, it is still somewhat lacking, though not much, in certain essential features. The maximum number of additional points likely to be found in one- or two-teacher buildings is about 300. The average score is $604 + 14$, indicating that the typical one-teacher building not only is far short of meeting reasonable standards, but receives very little (only 14 points) of additional credit. Of course, the effort of a community should be directed to securing the complete 1000 points before it attempts to secure much in the way of additional points.

If any citizen desires to know what the score of his building would be, he should write to J. E. Butterworth for a copy of the score card and standards and either score the building himself, or ask his district superintendent to do it for him. It means a little study, but the community will be well repaid because of the exact information it will secure regarding the housing of its school children. Those who live in one of the supervisory districts studied may secure this information through the district superintendent if they desire.

In a community having an average schoolhouse (and the one-teacher buildings are strikingly uniform, half of them having a score between $543 + 4$ and $674 + 23$), this is about what will be found. It is a rectangular affair, which has been called, and justly so, the "box car" type. If it is compared with the average home of the neighborhood, it is by contrast singularly unattractive. Of all of the one-teacher buildings, 95 percent are of this type. The building is usually in need of paint.

SCHOOL GROUNDS

The grounds contain only 47 square rods,—a little over one-quarter of an acre,—so that when the pupils play their running games, the road or the neighbor's field must be utilized. A full acre is a reasonable space, in order to give room for the building, for trees and shrubbery, and for such games and play apparatus as elementary children delight in: swings, sand pile, teeter board, horizontal bar, volley ball, one old cat, pompom pull away, etc. But only 10 percent of the schools have this amount of ground, while over 12 percent have not over one-eighth of an acre. There is, however, one redeeming feature about the grounds—they have plenty of trees. In fact, sometimes there are so many and they are so large that they shade the building, cutting off some of the light. But the yard is not otherwise attractive. Ashes or other rubbish are likely to be found in front of the schoolhouse. There is no lawn, no shrubbery, no flowers to give the place something of an attractive, home-like atmosphere.

The suggestion of the whole plant is that it is a place where children may find shelter—not a place reflecting the spirit that here is where children spend six hours a day, one hundred and eighty days to the year, for eight years of the most impressionable part of their lives.

LIGHTING

The typical school does not have enough window area to give sufficient light. Modern standards say that in this latitude the glass area should be not less than one-fifth the size of the floor, and where there is considerable shade, the proportion should be one-fourth. The typical school has a glass area that is only one-seventh

the floor area. Only 19 out of each 100 schools meet the standards, while in 11 out of each 100 the ratio is one-tenth and in a few cases it runs as low as one-fifteenth and one-eighteenth. In addition to

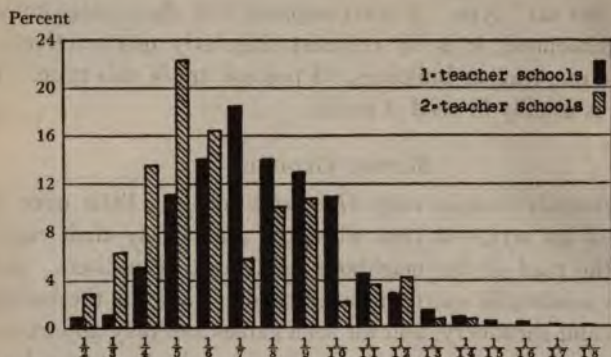


Diagram 6.—Proportion that glass area is of floor space in one- and two-teacher schools. The standard is at least 1 : 5

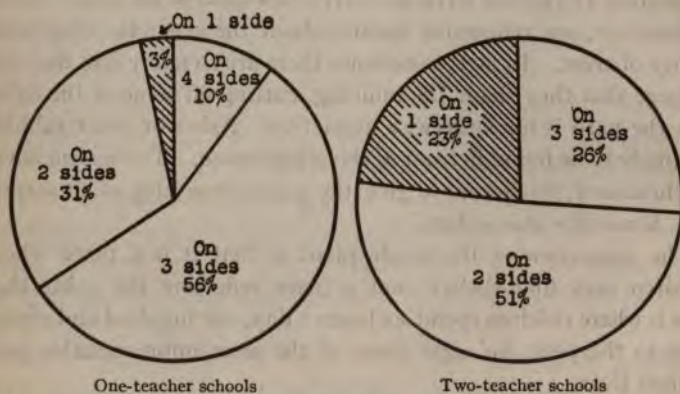


Diagram 7.—Window placement in one- and two-teacher schools. Light from one side is the standard

this, 86 out of each 100 schools have shades of such color, unusually dark green, that the light is practically shut out when the shade is down. If the color were gray or tan, or something similar, the



The old building



The new



Interior view, showing jacketed stove



Bubbling fountain and improved blackboard

Assessed valuation at time of building, \$49,310. Paid by a ten-year bond issue. Cost of building and equipment, exclusive of community labor, about \$2800. The situation was canvassed by a committee and plans and costs submitted at the school meeting. A better community spirit as the result of general participation in the solution of a common problem was one of the by-products of this building campaign. A splendid illustration of what may be done through community effort.

direct rays of the sun would be shut out, but light could still come through.

Not only the amount of light, but its quality, is important. If such light comes from the pupil's rear or right, a shadow is cast by his shoulder, hand, or pencil, and there is consequently an eye-strain in attempting to read what is in the book or what he is writing. Lighting from both left and right may also produce a reflection irritating to the eyes. Light in the rear is further harmful, because the teacher must face it a good share of the day, while light in the front, where all the pupils must face it, is even more disastrous. In New York 10 percent of the one-teacher schools have windows on all four sides; 56 percent have them on three sides; 31 percent on two sides; while only 3 percent have what is accepted as a desirable standard—windows on the pupil's left only.

The color scheme of the walls affects both the amount of light and its quality. If the walls are dark, too much light is absorbed; if pure white, a glare is likely to result. Only one-third of the schools have a color scheme that is satisfactory in this respect.

HEATING

In the typical school we find the ordinary stove that radiates heat directly, so that when pupils in the far parts of the room are comfortable, those near the stove are too hot. These pupils are not only uncomfortable, but when they go outdoors, are more likely to catch cold. Of each 100 one-teacher schools, 85 have this kind of stove. If, now, a metal jacket is put about the stove, an opportunity is provided for remedying the situation described. The fresh air may be brought in by a metal pipe directly from outdoors to the space between the jacket and the stove. Here it is heated, and as it becomes heated, it rises toward the top of the room. This leaves space between the jacket and the stove so that more fresh air rushes in to take the place of that which has been warmed. In this way a current is set up, the warm air is circulated about the room, and a much more even temperature is maintained. An outlet may then be placed near the stove for the foul air to be taken outdoors instead of having it reheated and breathed again by the pupils. But the one-teacher schools

have such facilities in only 14 percent of the cases. Furthermore, only 31 out of each 100 schools have a thermometer with which to measure the temperature accurately. One can readily understand how difficult it is for the teacher who moves about the room to tell by "the feel" whether the temperature is correct.

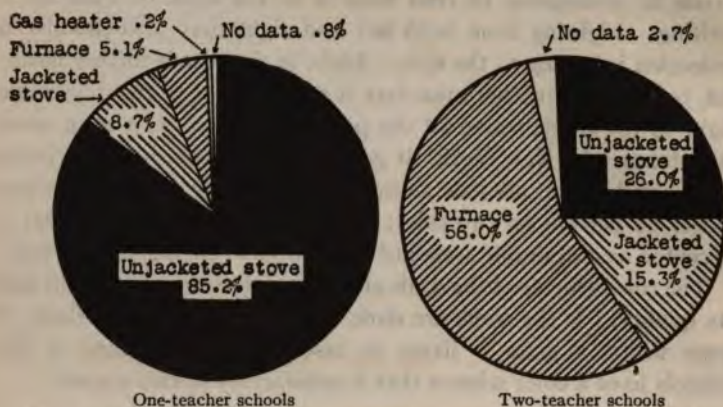


Diagram 8.—Types of heating apparatus in one- and two-teacher schools

WATER SUPPLY

People will not, of course, tolerate conditions that may give their children impure water. Not only that, but there must be plenty of it not too far from the school. A neighbor's well is used by 74 percent of the schools. There is no disadvantage in this if the neighbor is careful about his well, and if the children do not have to go so far for the water that they refrain from using as much either for washing or drinking as they otherwise would. Twelve percent have wells on the school ground while 12 percent use a spring. Much care must, of course, be taken to see to it that the water is kept free from contamination—there should be no sources of contamination (barns, privies, animal pens) near, and the well should be so located or protected that surface water cannot flow into it. The typical school meets these conditions satisfactorily, but there are approximately 25 percent that do not.

Even if the water is pure, disease may result from the way in

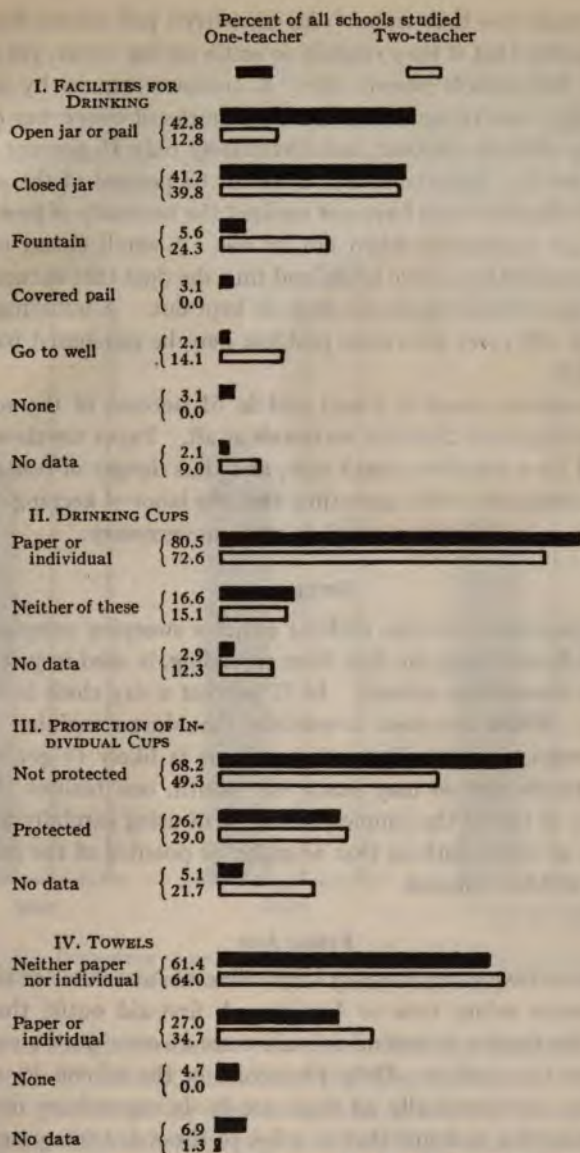


Diagram 9.—Drinking facilities and towels in one- and two-teacher schools

which pupils use that water. An uncovered pail allows dust and all the germs that it may contain to settle on the water, yet 43 out of each 100 schools permit this. A common cup is, by general knowledge, now recognized as an easy means of conveying disease from one child to another, and fortunately only 16 percent of the schools use it. Unfortunately, however, 68 percent of the schools having individual cups have not realized the necessity of protecting these cups adequately when not in use. A small closed cabinet can be supplied by a little labor, and thus the dust that accumulates when cups are in or upon the desks is kept out. A bubbling fountain that will meet the entire problem may be purchased for from \$12 to \$20.

The common towel is found still in 61 percent of the schools. In about 5 percent there are no towels at all. Paper towels may be supplied for a relatively small sum, and thus danger of contamination is eliminated at the same time that the labor of keeping clean a common or an individual towel is made unnecessary.

SWEEPING

Sweeping with a broom, without either a sweeping compound or an oiled floor to keep the dust from spreading, is used in just about half the one-teacher schools. In 77 percent a dry cloth is used in dusting. When one stops to consider that dust remaining on the desks, maps, window-sills, and apparatus is likely to get on the child's hands and so may reach his mouth, one realizes the desirability of taking the simple precaution of using carefully a damp cloth or an oiled cloth so that as many as possible of the particles of dust will be removed.

FIRST AID

Children frequently develop slight illnesses at school or in their play receive minor cuts or bruises. A first-aid outfit that will enable the teacher to attend to such cases at once can be supplied for about four dollars. Only 10 percent of the schools have such an outfit, and practically all these are in six supervisory districts. It is interesting to know that in a few of these districts practically every school is supplied with such an outfit.

these cases could be remedied if the seating were rearranged. School desks are made in sizes, it being intended that a No. 2 seat should be placed behind a No. 2 desk. It is clear that if a child fits a No. 2 desk he generally fits a No. 2 seat. But in practice we find that seats are very frequently arranged so that a No. 3 seat is put with a No. 2 desk. This places the small seats in the front of the room and the larger ones in the rear. What ought to be done, so far as possible, is to put seats and desks of the same size in a single row—the smaller ones near the windows (when light comes from one side only), the larger ones toward the inside wall. Of the one-teacher schools, 42 percent have the desks improperly installed. A little labor, with perhaps the addition of a few new desks of different size, would greatly improve present conditions. If it is decided to purchase new desks,—and many schools need them because they are broken or badly marred,—the adjustable desk can be purchased for very little more than the non-adjustable type, and so finer adjustments to pupils' needs may be made. Many teachers prefer the more recent movable chair-desk. One advantage of this is that it can be moved about when the teacher desires to bring certain pupils together into an informal group. Another advantage is that such desks can be placed against the wall and a space in the middle of the floor cleared for games when children cannot play out-of-doors. If the school has folding chairs, the class-room can also be turned into a neighborhood room.

BLACKBOARDS

A good blackboard is of importance in the class-room activities. Yet 34 percent of the schools have painted boards. These are quite unsatisfactory, for the reason that the paint soon wears off, the board becomes smooth and glossy, so that it is difficult to write on, and the individual pieces of lumber of which it is composed draw apart, leaving unsightly cracks that interfere with the writing. Fortunately, only 2 percent of the schools have painted plaster. Where used, the plaster is likely to crack and fall off, and when repaired, causes an uneven surface. Forty-seven percent have either slate or composition. These are the only types that give long-time, satisfactory service. The initial cost is relatively small,



The old building



New building, front view (the grounds were not yet cleared at time photograph was taken). Score: 800 + 33



New building, rear view. Notice unilateral lighting

Where improvement would give a better score: cleaning system; fuel room; artificial lighting; first-aid outfit; playground apparatus



The baseball section of the 1½-acre site of the new building

What No. 11, Galway, Saratoga County, did

and the cost of upkeep is practically nothing. Furthermore, a common practice has been to place blackboards so high from the floor that the smaller children cannot use them. Where there is only a single height, this should be not over 28 inches. Two heights of 26 and 32 inches are better. Yet in half of the schools the lowest blackboard is 35 inches or more high, while only 15 percent have a height of 28 inches or under. All except about 20 percent of the schools have sufficient blackboard space, such as it is.

PLAY APPARATUS

Unless this average school of which we have been speaking is unusual in this respect, it has no playground apparatus of any kind. Out of each 100, 84 belong to this group. The other 16 percent have one or more pieces, such as swings, teeter board, volley ball and net, horizontal bar, quoits, football, boxing gloves, jumping pole, etc. Such apparatus is helpful in stimulating pupils to play various types of games that promote physical development. Some of these pieces can be made by the older boys or their fathers.

TOILETS

The investigator approached the subject of toilets with as open a mind as possible—if anything, rather prejudiced against the chemical toilet. He found that of the toilets in use, less than 1 percent are of the flush type, 35 percent are of the chemical type, while 64 percent are outdoor.

We are concerned with types of toilets because of the effect they have in providing sanitary and moral conditions. There are eight important ends that should be set up as criteria for determining whether such conditions are secured: (1) Cleanliness; (2) control of the spread of disease through flies, etc.; (3) facilities that do not permit weather conditions to become a deterrent to the full use of those facilities; (4) freedom from defacement; (5) easy control by the teacher; (6) complete seclusion; (7) sufficient ventilation; (8) sufficient light. On certain of these points it was possible to secure definite information as to conditions in chemical and outdoor toilets. The flush type is not considered here, since it is impracticable in most of the small schools. It was found, for example, that

of the chemical type, 93 percent gave sufficient seclusion, but of the outdoor toilet only 58 percent did so. The reason for this is that the state sets certain standards for the chemical toilets that tended to insure seclusion, while in the outdoor type little if any change was made. Where these faced the road unprotected, they usually so remained; where the closets of the two sexes were practically together, they were not separated; and where the boards of the close fence of the approaches were down, they were not replaced. Proper installation and location would make the outdoor toilet as secluded as the chemical. It was found that 96 percent of the

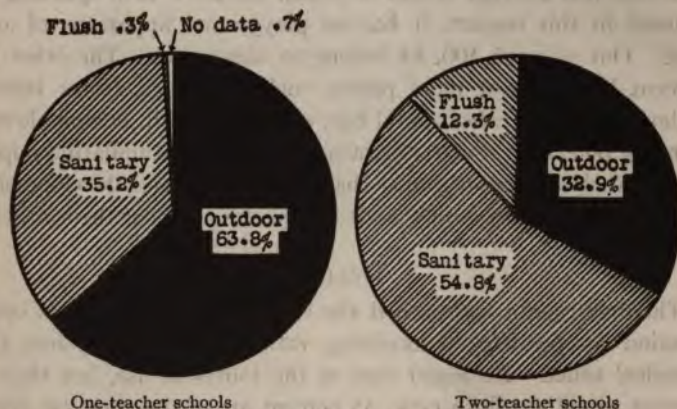


Diagram 11.—Kinds of toilets in one- and two-teacher schools

chemical toilets were well lighted because the state required that windows be provided. In the outdoor type only 30 percent were well lighted, for the reason that there was usually no provision for admitting light except that which came through the door or through cracks due to ill-fitting boards. This could be remedied. Facts showed also that 91 percent of the chemical toilets were well ventilated because the methods of installation provided ventilation. Only 25 percent of the outdoor toilets were well ventilated for the reason that usually there is no provision for ventilation except through general diffusion, and because lime or dust is almost never used. A comparison as to general condition (lack of odor, cleanli-

ness, etc.) showed that 87 percent of the chemical and 26 percent of the outdoor were satisfactory. Probably the chief reason for the advantage shown by the chemical type is that it *must* be cared for. No type can be satisfactory without care, but neglect in the case of the sanitary closet is disastrous. The worst toilet the investigator found in his work through the state was a chemical toilet, but this was obviously due to carelessness. To insure proper care, especially as regards the use of the chemicals and emptying, it would be economy for a supervisory district to employ a competent person to care for all the schools. The cost to each would be small compared with the results that could be secured.

Cleanliness is a matter of care that either type of toilet may provide. Control of the spread of disease through flies is also fundamental. Here the chemical toilet has clearly the advantage, since the chemical *destroys* the matter that attracts flies. Ease of control of the toilet by the teacher is also to be desired. The outdoor type is difficult to control at any time, and practically impossible of control out of school hours. The chemical has the advantage in this respect. For this reason the chemical toilet is less likely to show the defacement that the investigator found, in certain cases, to a degree that he would not have believed had he not seen with his own eyes. Furthermore, it is common knowledge that the child is reluctant to use the outdoor toilet as freely as he ought when the weather is bad. We do not know to what extent ill health in later life is traceable to this reluctance, but it is probably considerable. Here again the chemical type has the advantage, since this kind must be in rooms that are a part of the school building.

So far, therefore, as the investigator has been able to analyze the problem and to secure definite facts, he is inclined to recommend to rural folks that they give careful consideration to the chemical toilet as one of the most effective means of attaining the ends desired. In fact, so far as this investigation shows, conditions are decidedly better where the chemical toilet is found.

ESTIMATED COST OF SECURING IMPROVEMENT

Some of the improvements suggested above cannot be made without considerable expense; others can be made for very little.

TABLE 17.—ESTIMATED COST OF SUGGESTED IMPROVEMENTS

Item	Needed Improvements	Estimated Cost to Meet Essential Standards
1. Size.....	None	..
2. Shape.....	None	..
3. Window placement.....	Labor and materials for securing unilateral lighting	\$48.00
4. Glass area.....	Included in "3"	..
5. Shades.....	New shades	18.00
6. Floor.....	New	100.00
7. Walls.....	Replastering	53.00
8. Color scheme.....	Tinting	13.50
9. Inside finish.....	None	..
10. Blackboard.....	15 feet of 3½ foot composition board with tray; 15 feet of 3½ foot slate board with tray	25.00
11. Bulletin board.....	Pine covered with burlap	2.00
12a. Desks—pupils'.....	Repairs	10.00
12b. Desk—teachers'.....	New	25.00
13. Seating arrangements.....	Rearranging seats	3.00
14. Closet.....	None	..
15. Clock.....	Desk clock	3.00
16. Fuel room.....	Repairs	25.00
17. Cloak room.....	Rooms connected with sanitary toilets	..
20. Library.....	None	..
24. Heating and ventilation.....	Room heater with intake and outlet Thermometer	125.00 .50
26. Cleaning system.....	Oiling floor	2.00
27. Water supply.....	Bubbling fountain Two small mirrors Paper towels (per year) Liquid soap and container	14.00 1.00 10.00 2.50
28. Artificial lighting.....	Two Coleman gas lamps (300 candle- power each)	20.00
29. Toilets.....	Sanitary with cloak rooms attached	350.00
32. First-aid outfit.....		3.50
33. Mail box.....		2.00
34. Flag and pole.....	None	..
37. Foundation.....	Repairing	8.00
38. Roof.....	Slight repairing	5.00
39. Condition of repair.....	Repainting inside and out Siding replaced	55.00 5.00
40. Position on grounds.....	None	..
41. Orientation.....	None	..
43. Size of grounds.....	92 square yards more land	75.00
44. Shape and drainage.....	None	..
45. Shape of grounds.....	None	..
46. Condition.....	None	..
47. Fencing.....	Woven-wire field fence	127.00
48. Walks.....	Gravel	10.00
49. Playground apparatus.....	Swing Teeter board Sand pile Horizontal bar Volley ball and bat	15.00 10.00 5.00 10.00 30.00
50. Environment.....	None	..
51. Accessibility.....	None	..
Total.....		\$1211.00

In order to give an idea of such costs there are shown on page 140 the improvements, together with the necessary expenditures, as estimated by a prominent superintendent, that need to be made in order to give a typical school (an actual case with a score of 606 + 32) 1000 points of essential credit. There will, of course, be some variation in costs from one community to another.

Having made a study of the school, and having discovered wherein it needs improving, the interested citizen can set about stimulating his neighbors. They are unusual folks, indeed, if they will refuse anything necessary for the children's welfare, providing it is within their ability to furnish it. If a few improvements are made each year, it will not be long before the children will have those conditions of housing that will contribute to, rather than hinder, their physical, moral, and intellectual development.

TWO-TEACHER SCHOOLS

The children of those who live in a district maintaining a two teacher building attend school in a building that is better in practically every respect than if they were in a one-teacher school. The average score here is 755 + 29, an improvement of 151 + 15 points over the one-teacher building. The glass area is 1:6 as compared with 1:7. Twenty-three percent are lighted from one side; 51 percent from two sides; 26 percent from three sides. In this matter and in those that follow you may find it interesting to compare the conditions with those given in the preceding pages regarding one-teacher schools. Out of each 100, 70 have shades that shut out too much light. Fifty-six percent have a furnace; 15 percent, a jacketed stove. The percentage having an unjacketed stove is reduced to 26; 69 out of each 100 have a thermometer; 57, a well on the grounds; none use a brook or spring. About 20 percent do not properly protect the source of their water supply. Only 13 percent have the open pail, while 24 percent have fountains. Fifteen percent do not have either paper cups or individual cups, and 64 percent do not have either paper or individual towels. Seventy-eight percent have an oiled floor; 11 percent use sweeping compound; 55 percent dust with a dry cloth. Twelve percent have a first-aid outfit. As to toilets, 12 percent

are flush; 55 percent are sanitary; 33 percent are outdoor. The relative condition of the sanitary and the outdoor types is practically the same as in the one-teacher schools. Six percent have either the adjustable desk or the movable chair-desk; 71 percent have non-adjustable types. Only 9 percent have one-half or more of seats that are not properly adjusted, and 11 percent have one-half or more of desks that are not satisfactorily adjusted. In 25 percent of the schools the desks are not placed together according to size; 59 out of each 100 have either slate or composition boards, but the minimum height is still too high—34 inches. The grounds contain 125 square rods on the average, and 68 percent have no play apparatus of any sort. People who live in two-teacher districts may still do much to improve conditions.

THREE TEACHERS AND OVER

The children of those who live in a hamlet or village where there is a school with three or more teachers have, in general, a still better building in which to attend school.

The average rating given a three- or four-teacher building on the score card was 548. The score card used was quite different from the one employed in the smaller schools, so that no comparison can be made between the two groups on the basis of the score received. The average score for a five- to nine-teacher building was 628; for a building of 10 or more, 665. Thus it is clear that the larger the number of teachers employed, the greater are the chances that the building will be somewhat better.

In the better buildings only slight improvements need to be made, but in many the community should give serious consideration either to making extensive modifications or to erecting a new building.

In presenting some facts regarding these larger buildings the five- to nine-teacher group is chosen as illustrative in order to save space. In general, conditions in the three- to four-teacher group will be slightly poorer than these; in the 10 + group, somewhat better.

Of the 70 five- to nine-teacher schools studied, the average have a ratio of glass area to floor area of 1:6 in all class, recitation, and study rooms; 52 percent still have opaque shades, and 72 percent



Evidence of a community's pride in its school building.



Canandaigua No. 9, Ontario County. Score: 900 + 95



One type of recently constructed village school building. Consolidated school at Orchard Park, Erie County

have top-roller shades. In these class, recitation, and study rooms light comes from one side in 28 percent of the cases, from two sides in 57 percent, from three sides in 13 percent. Forty-six percent of the schools have a hot-air furnace; 39 percent, a steam boiler; 3 percent a hot-water boiler. Stoves have nearly disappeared, existing in only 4 percent. Forty-nine percent have some form of fire-extinguishing apparatus; 24 percent have some fire-retarding features, such as a fire-proof basement ceiling or an enclosed heating apparatus. All but 14 percent have some kind of fire-alarm system. Unfortunately, 23 percent have combustible or inflammable material stored in the building; 6 percent have outside doors that open inward; and 70 percent of these outside doors are not equipped with anti-panic bolts. Of these schools, 76 percent have oiled floors; 91 percent of all class, recitation, and study halls have either slate or composition blackboards. Thirty-six percent have no play apparatus of any kind, and very few of the others have a sufficient amount. Probably the greatest deficiency is in the laboratories. Very frequently these are laboratories largely by courtesy, since they lack so many essentials. The following description of a five-teacher school with 12 grades is not far from typical of the kind of deficiencies found. "Science laboratory too small and crowded. Lacks space for keeping apparatus. Lacks water, gas, etc. Lacks modern individual experiment table." On the other hand, many of the newer schools, especially those of ten or more teachers, have splendidly equipped laboratories, libraries, study halls, gymnasiums, auditoriums, and even, in some, special rooms for such activities as drawing, music, and swimming.

It will be noticed, however, that even though the larger buildings have deficiencies, they are in nearly all respects better than the smaller buildings, whether they are compared in regard to such health essentials as good heating and lighting or in regard to the opportunities offered the children in the way of play-rooms, work-rooms, etc.

WHAT MAY BE DONE TO SECURE IMPROVEMENTS WHERE NEEDED?

Many people have argued that local communities have shown themselves unable to handle their educational problems without at

least a great deal of direction by the state. As evidence they point to just such conditions as those that have been pointed out in regard to buildings. But others have contended that this conclusion does not follow; that the reason conditions are as they are is because citizens have not known about them or have not realized their significance. People who hold this latter view claim that when the facts are known, the progressive citizens of most communities will press the question tactfully, yet so persistently, that the majority will in reasonable time come to demand something better. The following recommendations are based upon the second point of view:

1. The first step after learning the situation in the state is to discuss the matter in the community. The school should be visited to see how it compares with the standards that modern buildings may reasonably be expected to meet. The problem may be considered in grange, farm bureau, home bureau, and similar meetings. Literature on the subject should be secured from the State Department of Education. The district superintendent should be called in for advice. Then, when community sentiment is ripe, the people should be called together for further discussion and whatever action seems wise.

2. Action ought not, however, to stop with this. Some communities may be apathetic and do nothing, even while the majority are alert. It is generally recognized that the state has the primary responsibility regarding education, and it ought not permit a few communities, because of their backwardness, to send their children year after year to schoolhouses that are unhygienic. The state should set up standards that will provide everything necessary in a good building, and should see to it that those standards are enforced. This enforcement should not be difficult, because the minimum standards should represent what a working majority of the people think to be desirable.

The state has at present certain minimum requirements for schoolhouses, but the law on this matter is not so clear as would be desirable; neither are the standards so inclusive as they ought to be, because only new buildings and those that are remodeled to the extent of \$500 come under the law. It is obvious that, given a reasonable time, all school buildings ought to meet those standards



Built about 1870; remodeled about 1905; stairway inadequate in case of fire; no provision for fire protection; no artificial lighting system; outdoor toilets in bad condition; laboratory quite inadequate; fairly good study hall but no other special rooms; large playground area but no play apparatus. Score: 438.



What a visit to the basement revealed



Evidence of community apathy

An illustration of a poor building in a small village

because *all* children ought to have at least those minimum facilities that the people, acting through the state, demand. When one realizes that the present law requiring state approval of plans for new and remodeled buildings was passed in 1904, and that only about 8 percent of the one-teacher buildings have been erected since that date, one can readily understand why schoolhouses are so generally deficient. It is significant, in this connection, also to know that 75 percent of these schools are thirty-six or more years old, and that 50 percent have been built for fifty-one or more years.

3. Many communities now have so little wealth that, unaided, it is practically impossible for them to make all the changes in building desired. Where this is true the state should give financial assistance. This is only a matter of fairness. Of course, it is to be expected that the state will not aid communities that do not tax themselves as heavily as they may, or that insist on maintaining weak schools with few pupils when there is another school within reasonable distance. If the state were also to give a bonus to those communities that do more than the minimum standards require, there would be a real incentive to continued progress.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the facts secured, the committee recommends:

1. That each community study earnestly its school-building situation, to the end that, wherever necessary, better provision may be made *because the community believes improvement necessary*.

2. In order that children may not suffer because of the neglect of apathetic communities, that the present law dealing with minimum standards be made more clear, that the standards be raised to comply more nearly with modern hygienic requirements, and that the standards be made applicable, after a specified period, to all schoolhouses in the state.

3. That the state give financial assistance to those communities that cannot meet the minimum standards without undue effort and that it grant a bonus to those that exceed these standards.

CHAPTER IX

THE EDUCATIONAL PRODUCT¹

A GOOD school is one in which children learn the things which children ought to know, and in which they form useful habits. It is schools of this type for which the people of New York state are willing to pay large sums of money in public taxes and to make large personal sacrifices in time and money. A proper evaluation of the rural school system of the state, therefore, implies an inquiry into the achievements of the pupils in these schools. In how far are these pupils learning the things they are expected to learn? In how far do they master the fundamental subjects of the school curriculum? To secure a basis for proper judgment on these questions the Joint Committee on Rural Schools provided for testing the achievements of pupils in the rural schools of representative supervisory districts of the state.

The districts were chosen with a view to including all kinds of rural schools, and thus giving a fair and accurate picture of prevailing conditions throughout the state. These districts lie in the following counties: Cayuga, Clinton, Columbia, Erie, Herkimer, St. Lawrence, Tompkins, Wayne, Westchester, Otsego, and Oswego. In the districts thus selected the tests were given in every school, from the largest and most easily accessible to the smallest and most remote. In addition to tests in these districts, examinations were also given in the consolidated school at Greigsville, Livingston County; and in the junior high schools in Rochester and Buffalo and in the senior high school at Syracuse.

In each school every elementary pupil was examined with one or more tests. Tests in silent reading were given in every grade from the first to the twelfth; tests in spelling were given in grades 3 to

¹This chapter is published as prepared by Dr. Haggerty.

8; and tests in American history were given in grades 7 and 8. In the high schools the pupils who were studying algebra and Latin took tests in these subjects, as well as tests in silent reading. In all about 16,000 pupils in 441 schools were examined.

While the tests were made thus widely, only a portion of the results will be here reported. The general trend of all the results will be evident from selected data bearing upon crucial problems in the work of the rural schools. Complete data will be given in the full report. For the purpose of the present discussion it may be assumed that grades 2, 5, and 8 represent the elementary schools; that the work of the high schools is fairly represented by the work of the ninth grade, and that reading ability is the basic achievement of public education. Major space will, therefore, be given to these matters.

THE PROBLEM OF ILLITERACY

If the entire population of New York who are ten years old and over were placed in a single file, the line would reach nearly 5000 miles. If one were to pass down this line, every twentieth person he would meet would be unable to write his own name.¹ If these half-million illiterates were segregated into a similar line, it would stretch across the state from Buffalo to Utica, or a distance of about 240 miles. Among the native-born whites the proportion of illiterates is one-half of 1 percent, while it is 14 percent among the foreign born who were living in the state in 1920.²

It is clear, however, that the ability to write one's own name,¹ important as it is, is no very adequate educational achievement. If a person is to participate in the social life of American democratic society in any real way, it is necessary for him to read the English language. Nor is a mere elementary reading knowledge, such as is attained by primary children, sufficient. The problems of economics, of politics, and of religion are discussed in periodicals and books which primary children cannot read. The ability to read in-

¹ The definition of illiteracy used by the United States Census is ability to write one's own name.

² Figures are from the Fourteenth Census (1920). The Appendix contains detailed information regarding illiteracy that was furnished by C. W. Smith, State Department of Education.

telligently the daily papers, simply written as they are, is considerably in excess of the achievement of primary children. In view of these considerations it would appear that census figures for illiteracy are somewhat illusory. They suggest a better condition than actually exists. If the census definition may be accepted as a criterion for illiteracy, then there should be recognized a condition of *near-illiteracy* which, because of its great extent, is of more concern than is illiteracy itself.

NEAR-ILLITERACY AND THE ARMY EXAMINATIONS

No better evidence of the amount of near-illiteracy which exists throughout the country can be obtained than that revealed by the army intelligence examinations. The bearing of these examinations on the problems of public education in the state of New York is of sufficient importance to justify a word of detail. Group examination Alpha was designed for men who could read the English language; the other, group examination Beta, was intended for illiterates or non-English-reading soldiers. The Alpha examination was sufficiently simple that it could be given to pupils in the fourth and fifth grades of the public schools. Yet, despite the general simplicity of the Alpha test, it was found necessary to examine 24.9 percent of the one and three-quarter millions of recruits with the Beta test. In general it may, therefore, be said that one-fourth of America's young men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one cannot read the English language as well as a fourth or fifth grade child in the public schools.

These figures, taken from the Memoir of the National Academy of Science on "Psychological Examining in the United States Army," are for the country as a whole. For the state of New York the Memoir shows that 16.6 percent of the men were unable to read the Alpha examinations. Of the recruits from New York city, 31 percent were required to take the Beta examination. Less than 2 percent of these were rated as feeble-minded, leaving 29 percent who were illiterates or near-illiterates, and who might have learned to read under adequate educational conditions. Of these, 2 percent were unable to speak English, 9 percent were able to speak English but could not read and write it, and 20 percent were able to read and

write somewhat, but not sufficiently well to read sentences such as the following:

"Get the answers to these examples as quickly as you can."

"It is wise to put some money aside and not spend it all so that you may prepare for old age and sickness."

To put the matter succinctly, it may be said that only 69 percent out of every 100 men whom New York city sent to the army were able to read English with sufficient facility to enable them to read the newspapers, or to understand army orders printed in the language of the country.

It seems pertinent to present these facts concerning near-illiteracy because the people of the state of New York may legitimately expect their system of public education to remedy the situation. No single obligation rests so heavily upon the public schools as that of teaching the young people of the state to read the English language—the language of American politics and government, the language of American commerce and industry, the language of American literature and of American social ideals. No achievement in other fields will compensate for failure here, and no mere knowledge of the simple words and sentences of the primary school readers will suffice. Young people should master the words and the language structure involved in English sentences and paragraphs which are necessary to mature thought. For such an achievement on the part of its citizens the state can afford to pay any necessary sum of money. To be satisfied with less is perilous to its democratic institutions.

READING ENGLISH PROSE

With a view to throwing light upon the efficiency of the rural schools in meeting this problem of near-illiteracy, and in developing reading ability on the part of the pupils in these schools, a series of tests in silent reading was given. In all the upper grades and high schools of the selected supervisory districts the pupils were examined as to their knowledge of printed words, their ability to understand printed sentences and to understand printed paragraphs. The test material was selected almost wholly from school readers designed for

the upper elementary school grades, was arranged in three tests, and was presented to the pupils in the following forms:

TEST 1.—VOCABULARY

Draw a line under the best definition for each word.

1. *labor* (look sad, to work, liquor, to read) 1
2. *victory* (fight, to win a battle, sign, to exclaim) 2
3. *captain* (wears cap, person who commands, tall man, master) . . . 3

Continue to 50 words.

TEST 2.—SENTENCE READING

Draw a line under the right answer to each question.

1. Are shingles used on houses? YES No
2. Are all fabrics made of wool? YES No
3. Would you trust a dishonest character? YES No

Continue to 40 sentences.

TEST 3.—PARAGRAPH READING

Read the directions and do what they say to do.

I

They went across the hall to a door at the back of the house. It opened before them and disclosed a long, bare, melancholy room, made barer still by lines of desks. At one of these a lonely boy was reading near a feeble fire; and Scrooge sat down upon a form and wept to see his poor forgotten self as he had used to be.

1. Underline the words telling where the door was:

in the front
at the side
in the rear
by the porch

2. Underline the false statements:

The room was cheery.
The room had desks in it.
The room was filled with beautiful pictures and flowers.

3. Check the one of the following statements which is true:

- a. There were many boys getting their lessons.
- b. One lonely lad was reading by the fire.
- c. Only one person crossed the hall.

4. Underline the statements which are true:

Scrooge cried.
Scrooge was sorry for himself.
Scrooge laughed aloud.

Continue to 7 paragraphs and 28 questions.

These three tests were combined into a single examination requiring about forty minutes' time in all. Together they measure well an individual's ability to read English prose as it occurs in school textbooks, in periodicals, in newspapers, and in ordinary books.

The maximum combined score possible in the three tests is 146 points. The average score for 1100 eighth-grade pupils in all types of New York rural schools is 72 points. The best score achieved by any eighth-grade pupil in any school is 135. Eight of the 1100 pupils scored 120 or better, and almost 10 percent of eighth-grade pupils scored above 100. Persons who reach this mark can read with fair intelligence current newspapers, periodicals, and ordinary books.

The lowest 12 percent of eighth-grade pupils scored less than 50 points on the combined tests. The meaning of these low scores may be clarified by concrete examples. A detailed study of the pupils' responses shows that one pupil in every seven did not know that "manuscripts convey information." Either he was ignorant of the meaning of one of these three words, or he was unable to see the relation of the words when combined in the sentence. About one-fourth of all eighth-grade pupils asserted that "All laws are enacted with facility." Either the words were unknown or the pupils were ignorant of the processes of legislation. One in every three pupils did not know that "a knave" is "a rascal," and a larger number did not know that "to beguile" means "to deceive." In every 100, 28 denied that "Embezzlers practise fraudulent activities," and 27 believed that "Imbeciles have high intelligence."

Similar details could be multiplied at length, but these are sufficient to show the character of the errors which are responsible for the low scores. The number of pupils who are able to interpret properly the straightforward English prose of Dickens, Eliot, Howells, Scott, and Washington is astonishingly small. Fifty-seven percent of the eighth-grade pupils failed to give correct answers to questions based on Washington's Farewell Address, about one-half of all declaring Washington to have asserted that "The people have no right to change the constitution of their government."

These facts for the eighth grade are peculiarly significant because

these pupils were practically at the end of the elementary school program. There is little likelihood that they will at all improve in reading ability unless they go to high school the following year. For all other pupils, the scores made in this reading test represent the maximum they will achieve in school. Except in rare cases, there is a fair certainty that these abilities will deteriorate when the children are no longer in school and in daily contact with books.

The foregoing figures are primarily for the larger rural schools, *i. e.*, elementary schools having four or more teachers. In general these schools are superior in reading achievement to the smaller schools, as may be seen by referring to Table 18. The eighth-grade pupils in the one-room schools, of which the state of New York has such a large number, read less well than do the seventh-grade pupils in the larger schools; and the seventh grades in the smaller schools are correspondingly behind. This difference is constant throughout the grades, as may be seen in Diagram 12, page 153.

TABLE 18.—READING EXAMINATION, SIGMA 3. ONE- AND FOUR-TEACHER ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS. "FOUR-TEACHER SCHOOLS" INCLUDE ALL SCHOOLS WITH FOUR AND MORE TEACHERS. MEDIAN SCORES AND MEDIAN AGES FOR GRADES 5 TO 8

Schools	Grades							
	5		6		7		8	
	Score	Age	Score	Age	Score	Age	Score	Age
One-teacher.....	31.5	11.9	41.7	12.3	55.3	13.4	65.8	14.4
Four-teacher.....	41.6	11.7	55.0	12.6	70.5	13.5	80.7	14.3

This disadvantage of the smaller schools is aggravated by the fact of greater elimination of pupils in these schools. In the districts studied the number of eighth-grade pupils in one-teacher schools is less than one-half the number of first-grade pupils. Apparently these schools hold their pupils fairly well up until the end of grade 6. They lose approximately one-third of the sixth-grade group at

the end of the year, and an additional 7 percent, or 40 percent in all, before the end of the eighth grade.

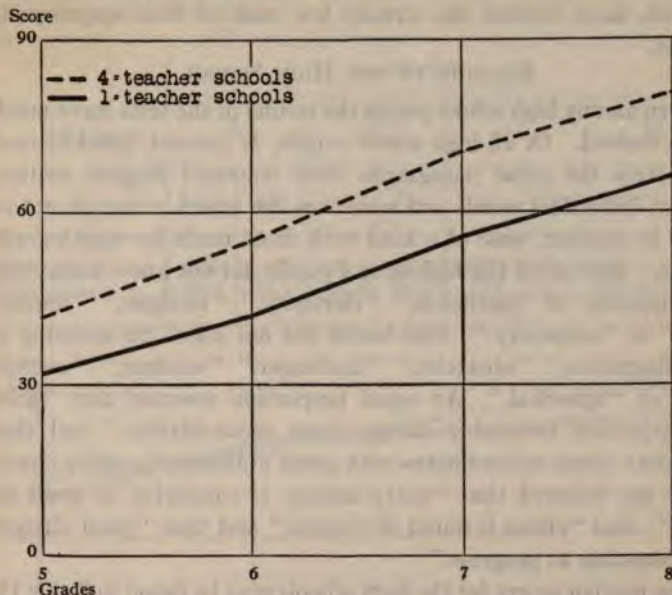


Diagram 12.—Reading examination, Sigma 3. Scores made by pupils of grades 5 to 8 in one-teacher schools and in four-teacher schools. Data from Table 18

The larger schools, on the other hand, have only 18 percent fewer pupils in the seventh and only 24 percent fewer in the eighth than in the sixth grades. A part of this apparent superiority of the larger schools is illusory, since some upper grade pupils leave the one-teacher schools and go to the larger schools, thus increasing the elimination figure for the smaller schools and lowering it for the larger schools. Notwithstanding this fact, however, there is fair certainty that the larger schools have distinctly greater holding power than have the one-teacher schools.

It should, therefore, be kept in mind that the low seventh- and eighth-grade scores in the smaller schools would probably be lower still if all the pupils who should have been in school had been there on the day the tests were given. There is some reason to believe

that the absent pupils were in general inferior in achievement to those present. Those who were no longer in school would, if present, have lowered the already low rank of these upper-grade classes.

READING IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Even among high school pupils the results of the tests leave much to be desired. Of all high school pupils, 27 percent failed to read accurately the prose paragraphs from standard English writers, and on individual words and sentences the errors, although not so great in number, were of a kind with those made by eighth-grade pupils. Half of all the high school pupils did not know accurately the meaning of "patriarch," "dexterity," "intrigue," "implacable," or "animosity." One-fourth did not know the meaning of "conflagration," "obstacles," "harbinger," "sublime," "nocturnal," or "spherical." An equal proportion asserted that "grim determination invariably brings about reconciliation," and that "despots invest subordinates with great authority"; while one in every ten believed that "petty larceny is conducive to good repute"; that "citron is found in craters," and that "good citizens are insensible to progress."

The median scores for the high schools may be found in Table 19. The results show that in all types of high schools there are many pupils whose reading ability is so deficient that they must have very great difficulty in reading and understanding their text-books in high school science, in high school history, or in high school mathematics. In fact, the test results indicate that many of the pupils can do the reading of these necessary texts less well than can a majority of eighth-grade and many seventh-grade pupils.

The distinction already noted between the larger and smaller elementary schools is also apparent in the high school grades. The data in Table 19 do not show the same consistency of superiority for the larger high schools as was true of the elementary schools, but the only exception occurs in grade 10. Diagram 13 shows a rather unexpected leap upward at this grade for the smaller schools. In all other places the figure appears to show the same condition as was shown in Diagram 12 for the elementary grades.

TABLE 19.—READING EXAMINATION, SIGMA 3. SMALL AND LARGE HIGH SCHOOLS. "LARGE" HIGH SCHOOLS MEANS HAVING FOUR OR MORE TEACHERS. ALL OTHERS ARE "SMALL." MEDIAN SCORES AND MEDIAN AGES FOR GRADES 9 TO 12

Schools	Grades							
	9		10		11		12	
	Score	Age	Score	Age	Score	Age	Score	Age
Small schools	90.0	15.4	104.5	15.9	107.1	17.1	111.7	17.9
Large schools	94.6	15.1	103.0	16.3	111.5	17.2	118.0	17.8

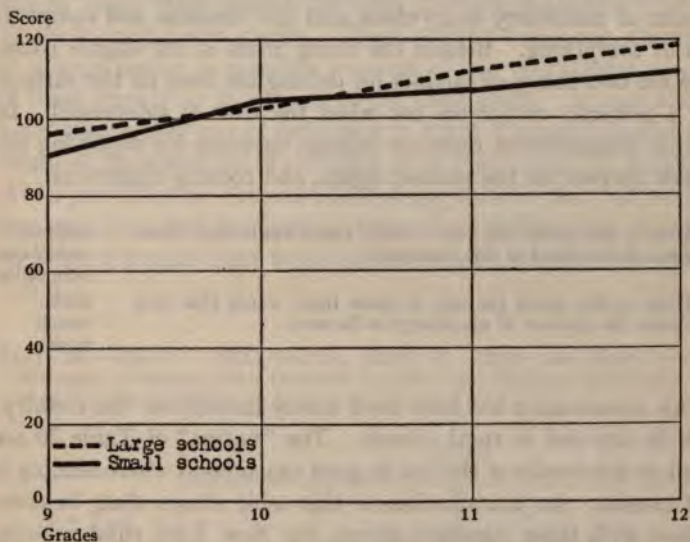


Diagram 13.—Reading examination, Sigma 3. Scores made by pupils of grades 9 to 12 in small and large high schools. Data from Table 19

READING IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

The differences between the larger and smaller schools which appear in the reading achievements of the upper grades and in the high schools are evident in the lower grades. The pupils in these

grades were examined with a simple reading examination, the first line of which was

1. Put a tail on this pig.



The successive lines increased in difficulty up to paragraphs like the following:

(Read this paragraph and then do what it says to do.

Read it again if you need to.)

"But we are anxious to see the inside of this wonderful craft; so, after a few minutes in the turret, we go down the narrow hatchway into the boat itself. Here we are immediately struck by the amount of machinery everywhere and the neatness and compactness of everything. Behind the living room is the engine room. Here are two heavy oil engines for driving the boat on the surface, and a powerful motor for use when the boat is submerged. In another compartment there are storage batteries for supplying the electric current for the motors, lights, and cooking apparatus."

24. Draw a line under the one of these three words that shows what is described in this paragraph.

sailboat
aeroplane
submarine

25. Draw a line under the one of these three words that best shows the amount of machinery to be seen.

little
much
none

This examination has been used widely throughout the country, both in city and in rural schools. The "norms" of Table 20 are based on the results of the test in good city schools where reading is well taught. An examination of this table shows that, in comparison with these standard norms, the New York rural schools, grade for grade, make inferior scores. In the case of the larger rural schools the inferiority is in most cases about one-half year below the standard. In the case of the one-teacher schools the deficiency amounts to almost a year. Thus, in grade 2 the norm calls for a median score of 20, while second-grade pupils in these smaller schools score but 9.5, which is but little more than the first-grade norm. In other words, the pupils who have been in these

schools almost two full years, and who are about eight and a half years old, read but little better than do seven and one-half year olds who have attended good city schools. A similar comparison may be noted in the case of third-grade pupils, who score just above the second-grade norm. The larger rural schools do distinctly better, their advantage being almost a half-year over the one-teacher schools.

Several facts of significance should be stated in connection with these figures. First, the medians of Table 20 are based on tests of over 5000 pupils in these lower grades, and hence they should be accepted as having great weight as accurate measures of existing conditions. Second, the teaching of reading constitutes the main, and in many cases almost the sole, instructional activity of the school in these lower grades. These reading scores are, therefore, to a large degree a complete measure of the educational product of these schools up to the end of the third grade. It may also be noted that a half-year of deficiency in grade 2 means a loss of one-fourth of the school life of the child up to that point. A deficiency of one year in grade 3 means a loss of one-third of the child's school life up to the end of that grade. The ratio of deficiency is, therefore, very much greater than would similar gross amounts be in grades 7 or 8.

TABLE 20.—READING EXAMINATION, SIGMA 1. ONE- AND FOUR-TEACHER SCHOOLS. FOUR-TEACHER SCHOOLS INCLUDE ALL LARGER SCHOOLS. MEDIAN SCORES AND MEDIAN AGES FOR GRADES 1 TO 4

New York	Grades							
	1		2		3		4	
	Score	Age	Score	Age	Score	Age	Score	Age
One-teacher	2.07	7.3	9.5	8.5	22.6	9.6	29.2	10.6
Four-teacher.....	2.40	7.1	12.7	8.4	26.7	9.4	34.3	10.6
Norms.....	6		20		30		38	

As an evidence that these results are not accidental, attention may be called to the fact that the deficiencies are constant from grade 1 to grade 4. Uniformly the larger schools score below the norm, and uniformly the one-teacher schools are below the larger schools. Whatever the conditions which make for the inferior achievement of these smallest schools may be, it is obvious that they operate generally throughout the schools of this type, and this despite the fact that the minimum length of the school term for all New York rural schools is one hundred and eighty days.

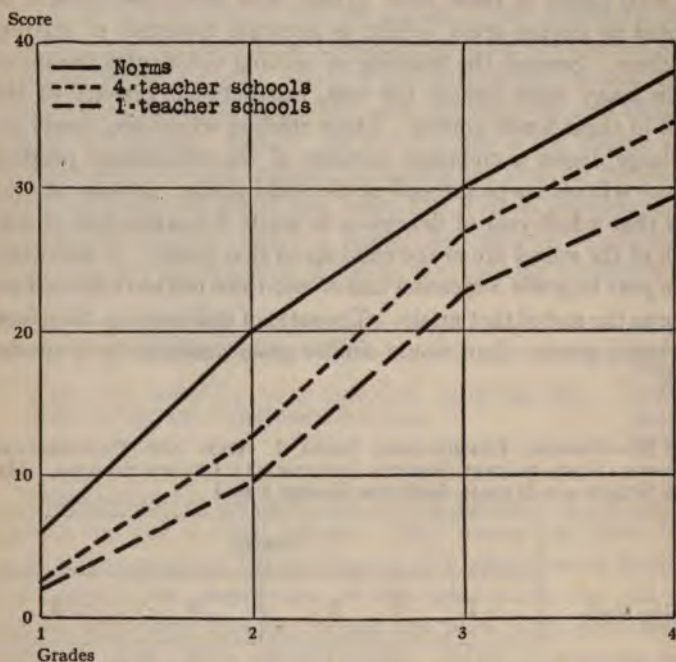


Diagram 14.—Reading examination, Sigma 1. Upper curve, standard norms; middle curve shows median scores for four-teacher schools, grades 1 to 4; lowest curve shows median scores in one-teacher schools, grades 1 to 4. Data from Table 20

The discussion of reading achievement began with emphasis upon the social value of literate or English-reading men and

women. It would be easy to elaborate this view. But it is equally pertinent to inquire about justice to individual boys and girls born and reared in the country. Some of these young people will desire to remain in the country; others will go to cities to live. But whether their future environment is to be rural or urban, is not adequate English literacy a rightful heritage of every American child?

The state demands this condition for its own security and progress, but the individual requires it for his own freedom, efficiency, and personal success in life. Viewed from this angle, the test results show that in New York state the rural child, the boy and girl growing up in the open country, where the one-teacher schools prevail, is placed at a disadvantage with urban children by the inferior type of education which is offered to him.

SPELLING

Conclusions similar to those derived from the reading tests may be drawn from the examinations in spelling. A list of 20 words was given to all the pupils from grades 3 to 8 in all the schools examined. The same words were given to all pupils. The list, which is the same as that used in the Virginia survey, is as follows: *come, was, foot, happy, could, once, pretty, always, uncle, beautiful, surprise, vessel, century, invitation, necessary, experience, athletic, convenient, decision, recommend.* All these words are found in the Ayres Spelling Scale, where their difficulty is evaluated. All the words are in frequent use by pupils of elementary grades. Each grade was scored for the words best adapted to test the spelling ability of that grade. The median score for each grade should be 66 percent of correct spellings. The test shows that pupils in one-teacher schools achieve correct spellings as follows: sixth grade, 60 percent; eighth grade, 74 percent. For the larger schools the results were sixth grade, 70 percent, and the eighth grade, 84 percent.

These results compare favorably with the Ayres standards. On the other hand, there is the same discrepancy between the scores for the larger and for the smaller schools—additional evidence of the inferior schooling to be found in the one-teacher schools.

AMERICAN HISTORY

Recent events of world-wide interest have emphasized the importance attached to a knowledge of American history on the part of all active citizens. By general assent the basic facts of our history are proper subject matter for the elementary schools. The syllabus of the New York State Department of Education provides for teaching the essential facts about important personages connected with American history in the fifth grade, and the *rural schools* are advised "to begin this work about October first and continue it to completion with two lessons a week." For the seventh and eighth grades the syllabus plans "200 lessons" in history, and makes provision for correlating such material with geography and literature.

In trying to evaluate the efficiency of the rural schools, therefore, it seemed pertinent to inquire as to the amount of historic knowledge which is possessed by the pupils. Accordingly, two American history tests¹ were given to 2000 pupils in grades 7 and 8.

Two types of questions were used—*information* questions and *thought* questions. The information questions were designed to show how many of the basic facts of American history were known by the pupils. The questions ranged from easy to difficult—from naming any battle of the Revolutionary War to arranging a group of states in the order of their admission to the Union. The *thought* questions provided a given set of facts and asked the pupil to record an intelligent inference based on these facts. They, too, were arranged with the easiest problems first. Both of these tests had been given earlier in the schools of New York city and in many other places. Comparison of results is, therefore, easy. From Table 21 it may be seen that invariably the rural schools in the state score below the standards derived from city schools, eighth-grade children in the larger rural schools standing about midway between New York city seventh and eighth grades. In smaller schools the eighth-grade achievement is below that of city seventh grades, and is about a year short of the ability shown by the larger rural schools. A graphic representation of these facts is given in Diagrams 15 and 16.

¹ Selected items from the Van Wagenen American History Scales.

TABLE 21.—HISTORY INFORMATION AND THOUGHT QUESTIONS, GRADE 8.
MEDIAN SCORES FOR ONE- AND FOUR-TEACHER SCHOOLS, ALSO STANDARD
NORMS FOR GRADES 7 AND 8

	Information	Thought
One-teacher schools.....	30.6	29.4
Four-teacher schools.....	38.5	36.8
Standards for Grade 7.....	32.0	32.0
Standards for Grade 8.....	42.0	42.0

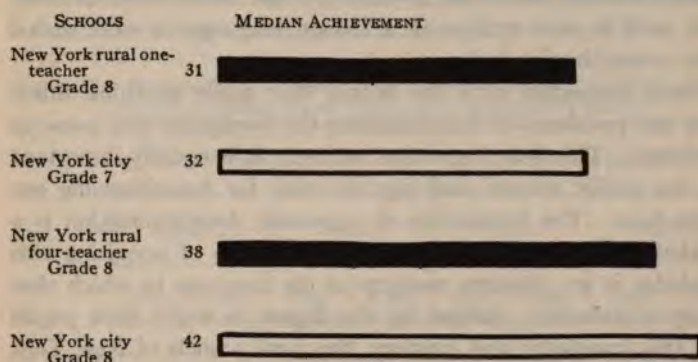


Diagram 15.—History—information. Showing median achievement in grade 8, one- and four-teacher schools, of New York rural schools, and median achievement of grades 7 and 8 in New York city schools

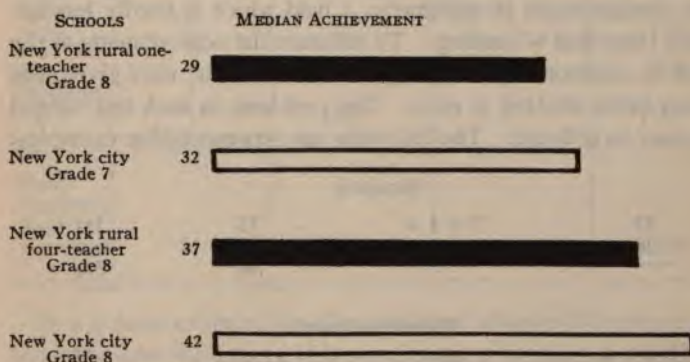


Diagram 16.—History—thought. Showing median achievement in grade 8, one- and four-teacher schools, of New York rural schools, and median achievement of grades 7 and 8 in New York city schools

11/11/11

11/11/11

11/11/11

11/11/11

This result is in keeping with the results of the reading tests, and is doubtless closely connected with the deficiency of reading achievement on the part of rural pupils. Children who cannot read have not the tools necessary to master American history. The lives of American leaders, the steady march of progress across the American continent, the industrial revolution, the writing of the American constitution, the social, economic, and political evolution of the American nation, are to them a closed book, closed as effectively as if it were written in a foreign language or were sealed under a combination lock.

Events connected with the World War made us think much about our problems of Americanizing the foreigners who come to our shores. This is an important matter. It is equally important that our public schools shall lay the basis for Americanizing our native born. The foundation of a genuine Americanization is a knowledge of American history, and the basis of acquiring this knowledge is an adequate mastery of the language in which that history is recorded. Judged by the degree to which their pupils have this knowledge and mastery, the rural schools of New York are distinctly deficient.

ARITHMETIC

The smaller schools make their best relative showing in the tests in the fundamentals of arithmetic, a field which is hardly less important than that of reading. To measure the achievements of the schools in addition and in multiplication two tests¹ were given, ten minutes being allotted to each. The problems in each test ranged from easy to difficult. The following are representative examples:

ADDITION

22	3 + 1 =	.75	2½
26		1.25	6¾
<hr/>		.44	3¾
		<hr/>	<hr/>

MULTIPLICATION

3 × 7 =	1036	2.87	6.25
	8	.05	3.2
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>

¹ Woody, Clifford S.: *Arithmetical Scales, Series B.*

The score in each of these tests is the number of problems correctly solved. For eighth-grade pupils the median standard score in addition is 18.5, and in multiplication it is 18. These standards are based on September tests. The New York tests were given in April and May. The scores should, therefore, be at least equal to the standard scores, since the pupils have had almost a year more of schooling. Without exception, however (see Table 22), the New York scores fall below the standards. They are also below the scores for good city schools throughout the country.

TABLE 22.—ARITHMETIC: ADDITION AND MULTIPLICATION. MEDIAN SCORES FOR RURAL SCHOOLS AND STANDARD COMPARATIVE SCORES

	Addition				Multiplication			
	Grade 5		Grade 8		Grade 5		Grade 8	
	One-teacher	Four-teacher	One-teacher	Four-teacher	One-teacher	Four-teacher	One-teacher	Four-teacher
New York	13.4	14.1	16.2	16.6	12.5	13.6	16.9	16.8
Webster City, Iowa	18.1	17.9	..
Denver, Colo.....	15.7	15.8	..
Seattle, Wash....	17.4	17.8	..
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	15.5	15.2	..
Woody Standards, September scores	14		18.5		11		18.0	

In a general examination, the results of which will be reported in full in a later volume of this report, there occurred a test in the solution of arithmetical problems. The first problem was:

“How many are 30 men and 7 men?”

The successive problems, 20 in all, increased in difficulty. These problems called for the ability both to think out a method of solution and to make accurate computations.

The results of the test are shown in Table 23, where the median scores are given for the one- and the four-teacher schools. The norms for the test are also given. These results tend to the same conclusion already derived from the reading, spelling, and history tests, namely, that the small rural schools do work inferior to that of the larger rural schools, and the latter seldom reach the standard norm. The smaller schools lag behind about a full year in most grades.

TABLE 23.—ARITHMETICAL REASONING: EXERCISE 2 OF INTELLIGENCE EXAMINATION, DELTA 2. ONE- AND FOUR-ROOM SCHOOLS, GRADES 3 TO 8. MEDIAN SCORES BY GRADES. STANDARD SCORES BY GRADES

	Grades					
	3	4	5	6	7	8
Standards	5.0	7.0	9.0	10.5	11.5	13.0
One-room schools	3.9	5.5	6.6	9.0	10.4	11.3
Four-room schools	4.9	5.6	7.7	9.8	12.1	12.3

ALGEBRA

In selecting schools for testing, all the schools of a supervisory district were included. In this way tests were given to all high school pupils of a district, whether these pupils were found in large, well-organized high schools or in small classes connected with upper elementary grades. The achievements of these high school pupils in reading have already been noted. Algebra tests were given to all pupils who had studied the subject three months or more, and who, at the time of the test, were studying it.

The algebra tests¹ used were those devised by Dr. H. G. Hotz. Two tests,—addition and subtraction and equation and formula,—each requiring twenty minutes of the pupil's time, were given to about 1000 high school students. Careful record was made of the

¹ Hotz, H. G.: Algebra Scales. Teachers College, Bureau of Publications.

time each pupil had studied algebra and the results were tabulated in terms of this time. Most of the students are included in the group which had studied algebra one year, or about eight school months, at the time of the test.

The Hotz tests, which are based on the type of algebra prescribed in the New York syllabus, have had wide general use. The standards given in Table 24 are based on the achievements of pupils in good city schools. It will be observed in the table that the larger New York rural schools exceed by a slight margin the Hotz standards. The records which are given separately for schools having not more than three high school teachers show that these smaller schools are achieving results very much inferior to the Hotz standard, and very much below the larger high schools tested in the survey.

TABLE 24.—ALGEBRA, HOTZ: ADDITION AND SUBTRACTION TESTS AND EQUATION AND FORMULA TESTS. MEDIAN SCORES FOR PUPILS STUDYING EIGHT MONTHS

	Addition and Subtraction	Equation and Formula
Hotz standards	7.5	7.6
New York—less than four-teacher	5.8	6.0
New York—four- and more teacher	7.6	8.0
Rochester	6.1	8.2
Buffalo	6.1	5.3
Greigsville	7.1	7.7

The table shows separately the scores for a junior high school in the city of Rochester, for one in the city of Buffalo, and for the consolidated school at Greigsville. In these schools the tests were given for the purpose of securing comparative scores.

The results show that the larger rural schools are doing as good work in the teaching of algebra as is being done in any one of these three schools. In only one case, however, do these comparative scores fall as low as the median result for the smaller rural schools. That single case is the Buffalo junior high school, which makes a low score in the equation and formula test. Every other possible comparison from Table 24 is to the disadvantage of the high schools having fewer than four teachers.

There is much difference of opinion as to the advisability of teaching algebra to all high school students. There is practically no

dissension regarding the importance of teaching it well if it is taught at all. Inasmuch as the schools examined do essay to teach the subject, they are subject to the charge of inefficient work on the basis of the relatively poor showing which their pupils make.

LATIN

Latin is an optional subject in New York high schools. It is, however, required for entrance to most eastern colleges, and the State Department requires Latin in its college entrance diplomas in arts. In the State Department syllabus covering Latin the vocabulary is arranged by half-years, with the injunction that "the pupil should have at command 90 percent or more of the 1000 words laid down for the first two years."

The Latin vocabulary tests¹ used in the survey consisted of 50 words, 41, or 82 percent, of which are contained in the New York syllabus for the first year. Basing the score on these 41 words, the New York criterion of 90 percent accuracy would require 74 percent score on the test.

A Latin sentence test was also given. This test used words almost all of which are in the New York syllabus lists for the first two half-years. The syllabus gives no standard for this type of achievement, but such standards have been derived from a wide use of the tests in representative high schools throughout the country.

The achievements of the New York rural schools in these two Latin tests, as may be seen from Table 25, is not up to the expectancy of the State Department syllabus, nor is it up to the standards set by the extensive use of the tests in other cities. In the vocabulary test New York expects 74 percent and gets 50 percent from the smaller schools and 55 percent for the larger schools. The Henmon standard require 66 percent, which is considerably above the achievement of the New York schools tested. This deficiency is also apparent in the sentence tests, which show an achievement of 20 percent where the standard requires 25 percent. The smaller schools, however, do as well as the larger schools.

¹ Henmon Latin Tests, World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y., 1921.

For comparative purposes the Latin tests were given in one of the junior high schools in the city of Rochester and in the high school at Greigsville. In general, these schools show better achievement than do the rural schools, particularly when the age of the pupils is considered. Rochester pupils, with a median age of 14.8 years, score better than the larger rural schools, with a median age of 15.1 years. The Greigsville scores in vocabulary are equal to the best rural schools and the sentence scores are superior.

TABLE 25.—HENMON LATIN TEST. FIRST YEAR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS WHO HAVE STUDIED LATIN ONE SCHOOL YEAR. MEDIAN SCORES FOR VOCABULARY AND SENTENCE TESTS; ALSO STANDARD SCORES

	Vocabulary	Sentence
Henmon Standards	66	25
New York Expectancy	74	..
Less than four-teacher schools	50	20
Four- and more teacher schools	55	20
Rochester	56	30
Greigsville	55	28

LARGER SCHOOL UNITS

In recent years the consolidated school has been widely recommended as an effective means for improving rural education, and in New York state as well as elsewhere considerable consolidation has taken place. The test results in the survey apparently justify such larger school units. Almost without exception the median test scores are higher in these larger schools than they are in the smaller one-teacher schools. Although these differences have already been stressed in this chapter, it is so important a matter that a further word may be justified. In Table 26 the scores in the upper-grade reading test are given in terms of the ages of the pupils. Ten-year-old pupils in one-room schools are here shown with a median score of 38 and in the four-teacher schools with a score of 56. This difference of 18 points is more than a year's improvement. The difference for some other ages is not so great, but the data show a constant superiority of the larger school units in developing reading ability on the part of the pupils.¹ The figures of Table 26

¹ The figures for the upper ages are complicated by the inclusion of all high school pupils examined, smaller high schools being included with one-room elementary schools.

TABLE 26.—READING EXAMINATION, SIGMA 3. MEDIAN SCORES BY AGES FOR ALL PUPILS TESTED IN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS AND IN THE LARGER SCHOOLS. IN THE LATTER ARE INCLUDED THE PUPILS OF THESE AGES FOUND IN HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE DISTRICTS EXAMINED

	Ages									
	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
One-teacher schools.....	38	42	45	67	68	62	67	59	66	..
Four-teacher schools.....	56	57	63	71	79	82	93	110	105	111

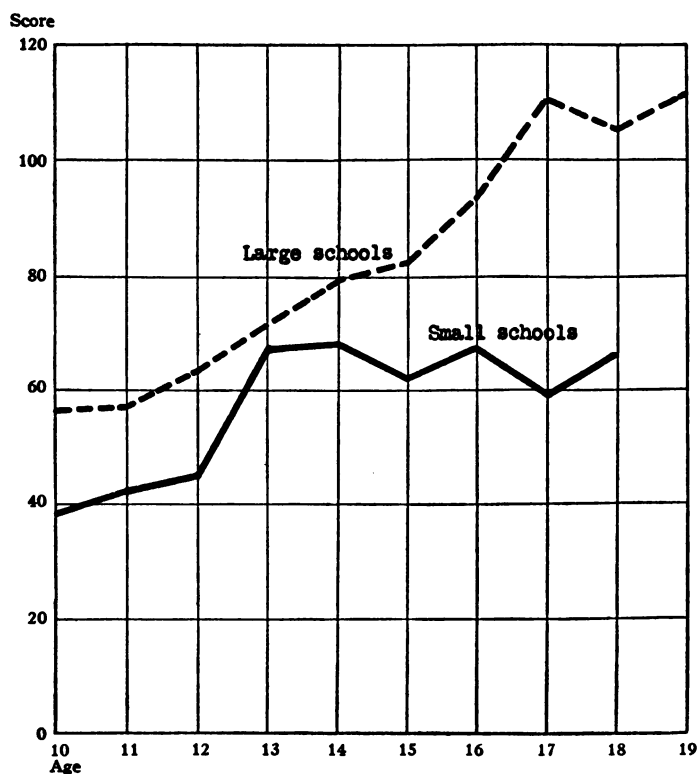


Diagram 17.—Reading examination, Sigma 3. Median scores by ages for all pupils tested in one-teacher schools and in the larger schools. In the latter are included pupils of these ages found in the high schools in the districts examined

are shown graphically in Diagram 17. The upper curve represents by ages the achievements of pupils in the larger schools. The lower curve shows the results for the one-teacher elementary schools.

The superiority of the larger school unit thus apparent in the results of the New York tests is supported by results found elsewhere. The same difference appeared in the Virginia, North Carolina, and Kentucky surveys, and, in fact, wherever the two types of schools have been measured by the same tests. This constancy of the difference is such as to identify these smaller schools with inferior achievement, and to raise in the mind of every patron of the one-room schools the desire for an improvement of school conditions.

Mere size of the school is hardly to be credited with this difference in scores. It is the superior advantages that go along with the larger school unit that are important. Better buildings, better equipment, better teachers, better classification of pupils, better school instruction are all made possible by the union of interests, the increase of school revenue, and the better school administration and supervision consequent upon increase in the size of the school.

Let us consider, for example, one factor which all will admit is important in determining the product of any school, namely, the training of the teacher. A careful record was made in the case of every school tested of the amount and kind of training of every teacher whose pupils were examined. A study of these records shows that in the larger schools the median training of elementary teachers is two years beyond a four-year high school course, and that 44 percent of these teachers are graduates of a two-year normal course. On the other hand, only 9 percent of the teachers in one-room schools have two years' normal training, and the median training of these teachers is four years of high school work plus summer courses of six weeks or more in normal schools.

Whatever the detailed cause may be, however, the fact remains that the one-teacher school is a less productive educational institution than is the larger school unit, and the pupils who attend the smaller schools are being handicapped for life by this fact. If the state of New York is to secure to the pupils of these more isolated

regions a fair educational opportunity, it must change and improve these schools. It is probable that the most effective means for such improvements is consolidation of school districts wherever that is possible. Where such enlarging of the school district is not feasible, heroic efforts should be made to bring to these smaller schools the necessary conditions for improved work at whatever cost.

CHAPTER X

FURTHER EVIDENCE ON THE WORK OF THE SCHOOLS

ASUBJECT of frequent discussion is the efficiency of the country school when contrasted with the schools found in cities and villages. Chapter IX, which treats of the Educational Product of New York state's rural schools, furnishes the most nearly complete and definite answer that we have to this question. There is, however, evidence available from other sources that will help in drawing conclusions on this important problem.

In connection with its study of the schools, the committee secured information regarding the progress of pupils through the elementary schools. This was done because one measure of the efficiency of a system of schools is the extent to which pupils finish the work of each grade on schedule time. Data were obtained by sending blanks to 917 schools in 22 supervisory districts. These districts were in various sections of the state. On these blanks information was obtained regarding the age and grade of each child in the schools as of April 15, 1921. Returns that were usable were obtained from 801 one-teacher schools and from 46 larger schools, none of which had academic departments. The data that were obtained made it possible to compute the median age of the beginners. It was found to be 6.9 years. On this basis it was decided that if a pupil was in the first grade at either six or seven years of age, to consider him of normal age. This basis was used in determining the rate of progress in the upper grades.

Fortunately, there were in the State Department of Education reports showing the ages and grades for pupils in the elementary schools of union free school districts for the year 1918-19 for the territory covered by this phase of the survey. This material was

used for comparison with that obtained from the common school districts. In making these comparisons the same basis was used for determining whether pupils were making the normal progress as was used in the elementary schools without academic departments.

It is out of question to present in this report all the data that were obtained, but portions are of such vital interest that every rural school patron should know of them. In other instances only general conclusions can be given.

It was found that throughout the grades the percentage of pupils making the normal rate of progress was less in the one-teacher schools than in the grades in the union free schools. The total percentage of boys that made the normal rate of progress was 52.1 in the one-teacher schools, while in the elementary schools with academic departments it was 57.3. The corresponding figures for girls were 56.8 percent and 58.4 percent respectively. The differences are even more pronounced for those who failed to make normal progress. The following table gives a general idea of the situation:

TABLE 27.—SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS MAKING NORMAL PROGRESS, FAILING TO MAKE NORMAL PROGRESS, AND MAKING PROGRESS MORE RAPIDLY THAN NORMAL

Type of School	Sex	Total Percentage That Were Making Normal Progress
One-teacher school	Boys	52.1
	Girls	56.8
Grades of union free school	Boys	57.3
	Girls	58.4
		Total Percentage Failing to Make Normal Progress
One-teacher school	Boys	39.3
	Girls	31.2
Grades of union free school	Boys	27.9
	Girls	22.1
		Total Percentage Making Progress More Rapidly than Normal
One-teacher school	Boys	8.5
	Girls	11.9
Grades of union free school	Boys	14.8
	Girls	19.5

It is not only desirable to know what percentage is delayed, but it is very important to know to what extent the pupils are delayed. It is very evident that it is unfortunate from the standpoint of effective

teaching to have pupils in the same class who differ greatly in their ages. A considerable number of cases were found of pupils fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen years old in grades 1, 2, and 3. In extreme instances fifteen-year-old pupils were found in the first grade. Such a situation works decidedly to the disadvantage of both younger and older pupils, and makes it impossible for the teacher to do satisfactory work. The extent to which this is a problem in the one-teacher schools as contrasted with the grades in union free school districts is shown by the following table:

TABLE 28.—SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS DELAYED ONE OR MORE YEARS IN THEIR PROGRESS THROUGH THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Number of Years Pupils were Delayed	One-teacher Schools	Grades in Union Free Schools
Four or more years.....	2.5 percent	1.5 percent
Three years.....	3.9 “	2.9 “
Two years.....	9.4 “	6.6 “
One year.....	20.4 “	13.6 “

It is clear that the retardation of pupils is much more pronounced in the country schools than it is in the grades of the union free schools.

In addition to these general statements, for which data are given, evidence was obtained in these same schools that justified the following conclusions:

1. The average age of boys in the second grade in the one-teacher schools is 1.52 years more than that of the average age in the first grade. During the second, third, and fourth grades more time is lost, so that they enter the fifth grade practically one year behind. From this time on they begin to drop out of school. The same tendencies are found in the village schools, but they are not nearly so pronounced.

2. The elimination of pupils from the one-teacher schools begins at thirteen years, and is in full progress at fourteen, while it is one year later in the union free school districts. Evidence that corroborates this point was found in the study made by the Military Training Commission. It will be given later.

3. Nearly one-fifth of all children in one-teacher schools are in the

first grade, one-third in the first and second grades, and three-fifths are in the first four grades.

The statistics on which these statements are based cover thousands of children in all parts of the state. They are to be regarded as much more conclusive evidence regarding the efficiency of the one-teacher schools than are opinions based on the observation of a few cases that may not be in accord with these findings.

Recently a report was issued by the Military Training Commission¹ that contains facts that assist still further in making comparisons of the relative efficiency of country schools as contrasted with those of cities and villages of the states. In this study certain facts were obtained regarding the education of the sixteen-, seventeen-, and eighteen-year-old boys of the state. It was found that only one in seven of the boys of these ages was in school. Of the 147,925 employed boys,—those no longer attending school,—14,529 were farm boys. The median age at which these boys had left school varied little with the size of the place in which they lived. In New York city it was 15.5 years, while the farm boys left at the median age of 15.8 years. When this is borne in mind, the figures in the following table, showing the percentage completing the eighth grade, are of interest:

TABLE 29.—SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYED BOYS THAT HAD COMPLETED THE EIGHTH GRADE BEFORE LEAVING SCHOOL

Farm boys	41.5 percent	Cities under 25,000	49.8 percent
Places under 5000 .	47.9 “	Cities over 25,000 .	55.6 “
Villages over 5000 .	49.7 “	Greater New York .	61.5 “

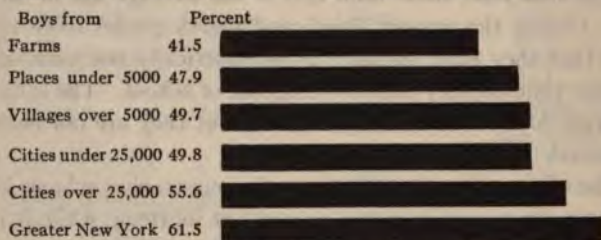


Diagram 18.—Showing percentage of employed boys sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen years of age, on farms and in the various urban centers, who had completed the eighth grade before leaving school

¹ Burdge: A Study of Employed Boys.

The table which follows shows the number of grades completed by the median of the employed boys before he left school:

TABLE 30.—SHOWING MEDIAN GRADE COMPLETED BY BOYS FROM COMMUNITIES OF VARYING SIZE

Farm boys.....	7.7 grades
Places under 5000.....	7.9 "
Villages over 5000.....	8.0 "
Cities under 25,000.....	8.0 "
Cities over 25,000.....	8.2 "
Greater New York.....	8.3 "

These figures are even more striking when consideration is given to the fact that only 3 percent of the farm boys were foreign born, while in all other communities outside of Greater New York 10 percent were foreign born and in Greater New York 20 percent were foreign born. This study showed that in places over 25,000 the median foreign-born boy completed only 7.3 grades, whereas the American-born boy with American parents completed 8.4 grades, and the median American-born boy with foreign-born parents completed 7.9 grades.

The fact that these farm boys did not complete as many grades before leaving school as those of other communities, although they left school somewhat older, might be attributed to the fact that they entered school later. That this is not the complete explanation is shown by the following data, giving the rate of progress per year through the grades:

TABLE 31.—SHOWING VARYING LENGTHS OF TIME REQUIRED FOR EMPLOYED BOYS TO COMPLETE A GRADE IN SCHOOL

Farm boys.....	82.8 percent of a grade per year
Boys in places under 5000.....	84.9 " " " " " "
Boys in villages over 5000.....	85.1 " " " " " "
Cities under 25,000.....	86.9 " " " " " "
Greater New York.....	92.2 " " " " " "

Further information regarding the extent to which these boys persisted in school in the various communities is furnished by Table 32.

TABLE 32.—SIXTEEN-, SEVENTEEN-, AND EIGHTEEN-YEAR-OLD EMPLOYED BOYS, LAST GRADE COMPLETED. PERCENT OF BOYS REPORTING EACH GRADE AS THE LAST ONE COMPLETED. SUMMARY FOR NEW YORK STATE

Groups	Grades									Total Per- cent
	Fourth or under	Fifth	Sixth	Seventh	Eighth	First H. S.	Second H. S.	Third H. S.	Fourth H. S.	
Greater New York . . .	5.7	2.5	7.4	22.9	43.5	8.8	5.9	2.3	1.0	100.0
Cities over 25,000 . . .	3.4	4.0	15.2	21.8	31.4	13.0	7.2	2.7	1.3	100.0
Cities under 25,000 . . .	4.9	5.9	17.5	21.9	26.1	13.4	6.9	2.2	1.2	100.0
Villages over 5000 . . .	5.2	6.2	16.7	22.2	27.5	12.2	6.4	2.4	1.2	100.0
Places under 5000 . . .	4.2	6.4	17.6	23.9	26.9	10.9	6.2	1.9	2.0	100.0
Employed farm boys	3.2	7.5	18.3	29.5	29.1	6.8	3.7	1.2	0.7	100.0

No attempt will be made to account for these facts. They are offered as one basis for more definite discussion of the relative efficiency of the country school than one can possibly obtain by his own observations. They should answer the questions of whether or not the country school is holding its pupils as effectively as the schools in the larger centers, and whether they come as near keeping the pupils moving at the normal rate of progress.

CHAPTER XI

COMMUNITY RELATIONS

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE AND PRINCIPLES

THE function of the school is to educate children of certain specified ages and abilities. With certain limited exceptions, everything the school does should contribute directly or indirectly to this major purpose. In no case is the school justified in undertaking anything that would interfere with its initial responsibility.

The teacher cannot accomplish this purpose by confining his work to the materials and opportunities found within the school-room. The old formal text-book work is not sufficient. He must use every available means, both inside and outside of school, to accomplish his end. Community resources and opportunities of every sort, extra-curricular activities, and other social agencies must be made to contribute to the children's education.

Moreover, the teacher cannot do it alone. A successful school of to-day can be realized only through a hearty and constant co-operation between teacher and patrons. The mere paying of taxes is not enough. Visiting the school, attending its entertainments, seeking its improvement, providing home life for the teacher, considering with her many school problems, giving her encouragement and moral support, are some of the community's responsibilities. To make a good school the teacher, then, must oftentimes work not only with the children, but with the parents, to develop in them this understanding and appreciation of school work and to foster an interest in its support.

This better type of school will be much more closely related to community life. Every phase of school work will be thus related more or less. The course of study must be suited to the needs of the children, available resources should be utilized, subject matter should be taught in terms of the child's experience. This implies

that the effective class-room teacher must have a more intimate knowledge both of the home and of the community conditions and the experiences of the children.

This question of the course of study is treated elsewhere in this report, and will not be considered specifically here. In this section we are primarily concerned with those phases of school work which involve a larger degree of school and community relation.

Just what relations should obtain between those who are in charge of the schools and the life of the community? In answer to this question, and as a basis for this study, the following activities are suggested, which, we hold, should be carried on by each teacher, principal, or district superintendent. They will vary somewhat with the different agencies for education. The relation of the teacher in the open-country school to her community will oftentimes be more neighborly and intimate. The rural high school, because of the nature of its work, would be in a position to establish many community contacts. Those high schools offering instruction in agriculture and home making would have many unique opportunities for coöperation with the farm and home. The district superintendent, as general director of his district, would be especially responsible for enlisting the community's interest in the support and improvement of the school and in coöperating with other agencies and forces. In principle, however, these demands are the same for all rural educators. They are briefly stated as follows:

A. Activities for which rural educators are *responsible*.

1. To promote and provide extra-curricular activities which are an outgrowth of school work or a fundamental part of it, such as the work of the school nurse, school exhibits and fairs, entertainments, and social activities.
2. To assist in educating the community into an adequate appreciation and support of education through every available means. This should include, wherever feasible, the formation of some organization or committee giving special attention to school improvement and also hearty coöperation with those organizations or agencies somewhat concerned in school improvement.

B. Activities in which educators should *coöperate*.

1. School people should coöperate with other agencies or organizations in order both to improve educational opportunities for the children and, in so far as it is consistent with an effective education for children, to assist these organizations in their own work.
2. When these other agencies are not in existence or fail to function, educators are justified in seeking to create such conditions in the community as are quite essential to their own effective service.
3. Educators and local school officials should coöperate in furthering the use of the school plant as a general center for community meetings and activities whenever that is desired.

C. Activities of educators as *citizens*.

1. Educators should, as citizens, be vitally interested in every question of public concern and every effort for community improvement, such as Americanization of the immigrants, enriching the spiritual life of the community, stimulating coöperation, developing the social life, exercising community leadership, or any other question of rural life or general social progress.

D. Corresponding responsibilities of the community and other organizations.

1. The community, in addition to formal responsibility expressed through the paying of taxes and electing trustees, should give the teacher the most loyal support and encouragement, constructive criticism and suggestions, and provide a satisfactory home and social environment.
2. Other agencies should coöperate with the school both to further their own ends and to assist the school. But they should not attempt to use the school as a means of promoting their own ends if this interferes in any way with the school's primary function.
3. Other agencies or organizations should not usurp or undertake to carry on the legitimate activities of the school or educational forces.

FINDINGS OF THE SURVEY ON THE COMMUNITY RELATIONS OF NEW YORK RURAL SCHOOLS

For Rural Teachers in One- and Two-Teacher Country Schools.—Information for the present study on the community relations of New York rural schools was secured from a questionnaire filled out by 1480 rural teachers and from personal visits made by field workers to 173 widely scattered rural schools.

The general purpose throughout these inquiries was to see how fully the average rural school of New York discharges the community obligations set up as proper standards for such work in the preceding pages of this discussion. With this end in view, five questions on the blank in a total of ten attempted to learn what activities and opportunities rural teachers created for educating their communities into an adequate appreciation and support of schools. From these inquiries it developed that only 26 rural schools, or 1.7 percent of the 1480 reporting, had a definite organization for adults giving special attention to school affairs. These 26 organizations were parent-teacher associations. Twenty-seven schools report farm and home bureaus or granges as assisting in the advancement of school needs, however, and 21 schools report the same assistance from general community clubs, making a total of 3.2 percent for assistance from coöperating organizations, as against 1.7 percent for assistance from specialized organizations devoting full attention to school needs. From this it is apparent that when the rural school forces of New York try at all to reach the public for school purposes, they do so through the channels of regular farm organizations. The vitality and influence of these organizations are to be determined in part by their frequency of meeting. From this point of view it is significant that 44 met monthly, 18 oftener than once a month, and 12 less often.

Realizing that many districts lacking definite organization would still hold community meetings for the discussion of school issues, a second question on the blank related to gatherings of this type. Here the results are more encouraging: 714, or 48 percent, reported meetings of this kind. Most of these,—525, or 73 percent,—on the other hand, were mere school entertainments, and it is doubtful whether they assisted greatly in enlightening the community to-

ward a larger support and appreciation of education. That the people of the state are generally interested in the type of gathering held is indicated by the report of good attendance for 31 percent of these meetings, and of poor attendance for but 3 percent.

The influence of the typical school building of the state upon the community activities of teachers and school agents is apparent from the fact that 49 percent of the schools reporting claim *no conveniences whatever* for community gatherings, not even such common necessities as coat-rooms, good lights, or movable seats. From this and the general study of school buildings, given elsewhere in this report, it is easy to understand why but few rural school plants are used as "community centers" or general meeting-places for other agencies and activities of the community.

But the rural teacher should find additional opportunities, other than through community meetings or definite school organizations, for educating the public into an adequate appreciation of school. One of these lies in persuading school patrons to visit schools and thus become acquainted with the purposes and needs of education. Another arises from the personal contacts secured through *membership in general community organizations*. In both these respects New York rural teachers rank high. Only 139 of the total number replying report no visitors at school during the year, while 813, or 55 percent, record the visits of from 5 to 40 school patrons. Of all teachers reporting, 957, or 64 percent, testify to membership in one or more community organizations in the communities where they teach. Most of this (691 mentions) is church membership or Sunday-school participation (539). Now in order comes the Red Cross, with 320 reports, the Grange, with 289, and the Farm and Home Bureau, with 146.

The general practice in providing extra-curricular or outside socialized activities for children was investigated. As was noted in the preceding section, 525 teachers reported having school entertainments in which the patrons were generally interested. From the teacher's reports it was found that health clubs and Crusaders are organized in 1056, or 71 percent, of the schools reporting. Home projects or junior extension work is organized in 312 (21 per-

cent). This indicates that rural schools are limited both in scope and in number of extra-curricular activities.

That teachers are coöperating somewhat with other organizations established for children is shown by the following facts. The Junior Red Cross is organized in 226, or 15 percent, of the districts reporting, Boy Scouts in 146, or 9 percent, Girl Scouts in 38, or 2 percent, and Camp Fire Girls in 24, or 1.6 percent. In the above activities—both those for which the teacher is responsible and those with whose activities he should coöperate—teachers report themselves as leaders in 792, or 53 percent, of the cases given, and as but partially responsible in 6 percent. They are, however, far more often leaders in health clubs and junior extension work than in the other activities. This is as it should be, since these are primarily the school's responsibility.

Few facts are at hand to indicate to what extent the rural teachers coöperate with other rural organizations in the many passing relations that arise. From reports of the field workers it appears that New York rural teachers are not prepared for a large degree of co-operation. Almost 80 percent show no qualifications whatever in this direction, while two-thirds are reported as comprehending the social and economic problems of rural life "very little" or "not at all." The underlying cause for all this is revealed later, when it is reported that only 6 percent of the teachers seen had ever had any course of training for this purpose, and these but "slight preparation" as gained from institutes and occasional lectures and books.

The degree to which the teacher, as citizen, is a forceful influence in the rural community may be gathered partly from the following: Twenty-eight percent of all rural teachers report themselves as holding offices in one or more community organizations. These offices, however, are largely assistantships, including chiefly Sunday-school positions and secretarial responsibilities for granges and lodges. This whole question of leadership was gauged also in the reports of field visitors. Here the evidence is less complimentary. Among 158 teachers observed, only 54, or 34 percent, are reported as possessing "the necessary qualifications for effective leadership to any appreciable degree."

In determining their knowledge of home conditions as a basis for teaching a good school, teachers were asked as to the number of families they had visited in person during the year. Here a highly creditable record is shown. Of those reporting, 207, or 14 percent, had called upon all the families in the district from which children were enrolled, while 934, or 63 percent, had visited over half the families represented in their schools. Of the teachers considered, 84 percent claim, further, that they are making specific attempts, through regular school work, to develop a good community attitude on the part of their pupils in matters of health, good government, fair business dealing, and accepted social standards.

For High School Principals and Rural and Village High Schools.—The data from high schools and community relations have proved so scant and unsatisfactory that further studies are necessary. These are now under way, and will be completed soon and included in the final report of this division. Through the kindness of Professor Emery N. Ferriss, of Cornell University, enough facts are available, however, to indicate tendencies.

Among 392 high schools, 158, or 40 percent, report some community organization actively coöperating with the school. Chief among these are 74 parent-teacher associations and 55 grades. In this connection it is significant that 19 percent of the high schools report parent-teacher associations, while only 1.7 percent of the country schools report such organizations.

In extra-curricular activities high schools outstrip rural schools also, 402, or almost 100 percent, reporting affirmatively here, while the proportion for rural schools on the same point was only 71 percent.

Another significant community activity of village high schools for the purposes of this study is to be found in the work of principals for interesting rural pupils in high school work. Of the 385 schools tabulated on this inquiry by Professor Ferriss, 174, or 22 percent, made some form of appeal to country children. This is good, so far as it goes, but when it is recalled that the village high school presents practically the only opportunity of the rural child for secondary education, the inadequacy of this effort becomes apparent.

The Community Activities of District Superintendents.—The community activities of district superintendents were studied chiefly from returns on a questionnaire filled out by 180 of the 207 officers of this type in the state. First-hand impressions were gathered from a number of field visitors also, and much has been learned as a by-product from the visitation of rural schools.

The chief community responsibility of the district superintendent, as for the teacher, aside from his fundamental function of assisting in providing good instruction, is undoubtedly that of educating the community into an adequate appreciation and support of schools. In this he carries more responsibility than any other school agent. For this reason most of the direct inquiries put to superintendents related to this point.

Of the superintendents reporting, 145, or 80 percent, had addressed one or more school and community meetings during the year. But 29, or 16 percent, report addressing no meetings of any kind, and 125, or 69 percent, addressed 10 or less, an average of one per month, while only 5 percent reached more than 18 a year, or an average of two per month. The average number of meetings addressed per superintendent for the year was only five. Speakers were procured for meetings by 61 percent of the superintendents replying, the average number of meetings thus assisted per superintendent being three.

Among the other means of school and community development employed by superintendents, circular letters and newspapers rank first, being used in each case by 80 percent of those reporting. Field meets (70 percent) and general community conferences (41 percent) come next, with children's clubs and projects (32 percent) and regular class work (34 percent) following. With this it is noteworthy that only 6 percent of all superintendents considered are publishing a monthly paper for teachers and patrons, and that but very few issue printed annual reports for the public. In connection with this last statement about monthly publications and yearly reports, one should take into account the fact that the district superintendents have no clerical help, and that any expense for printing or reports must come out of their expense budget of \$600 upon which there are many demands.

The chief aims of district superintendents in the community work they undertake are declared to be, first, coöperation (mentioned 76 times in 180 replies); second, better schools (44 mentions), and third, neighborliness (25). To these are added the development of citizenship (20) and the desire to attack general community problems (11). Upon the whole, these will be recognized as commendable purposes.

The handicaps most frequently met in attaining these ends are reported as community indifference (mentioned 139 times in a total of 180 replies); bad roads, and lack of coöperation and ability among teachers (99 mentions each); friction and jealousy between organizations (62); and lack of time for such work on the part of superintendents (19). Coöperation between district superintendents and other county or social agents is affirmatively reported by 143 of the 180 individuals replying. In this coöperation the agencies figuring most prominently are farm and home bureaus (mentioned 86 times); the Red Cross (71 mentions); the grange (60); the church (45); and health organizations (31).

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

From the data of this study it is evident that, when measured in terms of realizable ideals, the community relations of New York rural schools are far from satisfactory. With whole counties in New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, and several other states showing from 60 to 85 percent of their rural communities organized for school support through parent-teacher associations, civic leagues, or school improvement associations, a 1.7 percent showing of New York rural districts as revealed here is lamentably low. So, too, is the educational and community leadership of the average district superintendent as compared with the activity of the most efficient and outstanding county superintendents of the country. For all this, in the opinion of the committee, there are three fundamental causes: First, the overburdening of the office of the district superintendent, which, without provision for either clerical help or a differentiation of administrative and supervisory duties, is hopelessly handicapped; second, the general neglect of this phase of educational administration by the State Department of Education,

with the accompanying lack of assistance in these matters to district superintendents; and third, the fact that the district superintendent has but little local responsibility and is not responsible to a natural social unit which thinks as a unit.

The best that can be said on the community relations of rural schools in New York is that there has been but little tendency here toward exploiting the rural elementary school for adult and vocational ends. This in itself is highly commendable. But an alternate danger, almost equally serious, lies in developing a general inertia on the part of school forces which keeps them not only from infringing upon the territory of other agencies, but from fulfilling their own obligations. This fault New York seems to possess to a high degree. The rural school forces of the state, in other words, are conducting only a tithe of the legitimate community activities which they should foster and must undertake if the commonwealth is ever to come into its own educationally.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the findings given above the following provisional proposals on the community relations of rural schools are tentatively submitted:

1. That, because school work in the main is limited to routine class-room activity, greater attention should be given to providing, as a part of school work, additional extra-curricular activities, such as entertainments, school fairs and exhibits, plays.

2. That in every rural district of the state there be developed a live interest of adults for the advancement of education. This interest may either take the form of a separate organization for school betterment, as parent-teacher associations and school improvement leagues, or be focused in the work of a special education committee under some organization not exclusively educational, as the grange or farm and home bureau.

3. That rural and village high schools be especially urged to develop and emphasize the many possible forms of community relation and service consistent with their functions, including provision for adult education.

4. That a reasonable amount of properly directed community

effort, in harmony with the principles of this study, be expected of every rural teacher, principal, or district superintendent in the state.

5. That the curricula for the preparation of rural teachers, principals, and district superintendents provide suitable preparation for this phase of school work. The nature of this work is such that preparation for it cannot be accomplished by a few additions to a formal training course. To be efficient here, attention must be given to the problem throughout the course.

6. In view of the larger responsibility of the district superintendent for the leadership of rural folk, it is advised that personal qualifications for such service, other than professional preparation, be taken into consideration in his selection.

7. In order that the above activities may be more fully realized, provision should be made for this work—

(a) In providing school buildings and equipment.

(b) In the type of service rendered by the State Department of Education to the school forces of the state.

8. Finally, the people of the state, being jointly responsible with the school people of the state, should take a greater interest in school conditions and be more vitally concerned in every form of school improvement.

PREFATORY NOTE TO CHAPTERS XII AND XIII

In the preceding chapters an effort has been made to put before the rural school patrons some idea of the conditions that obtain in their schools. It seemed to the committee that the facts that have been gathered show that in many respects a handicap is placed upon the child who, by the force of circumstances, is compelled to attend school in the open country. So marked is the disparity between his opportunity and that of the child who attends school in a city or village that it is well within the bounds of truth to say that the most important educational problem that New York faces is that of equalization of educational opportunity as between country and city.

In connection with the data presented, some recommendations have been made that, in the judgment of the committee, will improve conditions. There remain, however, the two most important problems to be considered, viz., administration and supervision of the schools and school support. These two aspects have been reserved for consideration until the reader had a general view of school conditions in the state, because they involve the main changes that are necessary if country school conditions are to be made right.

CHAPTER XII

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

EFFORTS looking toward the improvement of the system of rural education in New York state should be conducted with full recognition of the importance of an intelligent and enthusiastic public opinion back of all attempts at legislation. New York had, in the enactment and speedy repeal of the township law four years ago, an impressive lesson on the futility of legislation,

unsupported by popular understanding and sympathy. From the day of its organization this committee has recognized the importance of this fact. It has also realized that it would not render the greatest measure of usefulness to the state merely by endeavoring to secure legislation, even though the measures proposed met with the approval of rural people. The report must go further. It must command approval for certain broad principles of school administration and supervision. Furthermore, it must make clear the fact that these principles are worthy of general acceptance.

To secure a consideration of the situation in the light of principles is very difficult because of the conditions surrounding the passage and repeal of the township law. This whole transaction seems to have arrayed people for or against certain theories of organization, for and against the State Department of Education, for and against one another. So intense is the partizan antagonism on the matter of township organization of schools that it is quite impossible to consider rural school conditions in the state without being drawn into the earlier controversy.

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE STATE FOR EDUCATION

However, if progress is to be made in remedying the conditions that have been presented in the earlier pages of this report, those who are interested in rural education must be willing to lay aside old antagonisms and consider the situation in the light of certain fundamental principles. Society has come to the recognition of the fact that certain minimum standards of schooling must be established for its future citizens. Experience has shown that there are homes to which it is unwise to leave for final decision the question of whether or not children shall attend school. Nor can it be left to each community to decide below certain minimum standards what school facilities will be furnished.

The state must, for its own protection and for the protection of its future citizens, recognize the absolute necessity of a good popular education. It can take no risk in insuring that every boy and girl is adequately prepared for future citizenship. The state, in the discharge of this responsibility, is sure to clash sooner or later with some one who does not care for schools. For example, there is a

family which is shiftless and neglects its children. The state steps in and even goes so far as to assume charge of the children. A community tolerates a tumble-down school building and the state steps in with its authority and condemns the building.

Again, in the exercise of its powers the state must often give the community which it coerces the means necessary to support schools. Furthermore, the state, with its wider range of operations and greater resources, must often undertake to perform functions which are necessary to the maintenance of good schools, but which the local community cannot perform. For example, the district evidently cannot train teachers to supply its schools. So the state establishes normal schools and trains teachers for many schools. Again, the small community very often cannot afford to support a high school, so until some better plan can be set up, the state pays the tuition of the community's children in the high school of some neighboring community.

Such examples ought to convince every one that the state as a whole must be recognized as a factor in the conduct of schools. Schools are not local institutions, especially in a democratic country, where the safety of all public institutions depends on the intelligence of citizens. Not only is the state always concerned with the schools, but it is a general fact that the state is likely in most cases to have higher standards for schools than does the individual district. The state, taken as a whole, is less likely than is the small community to be tolerant of the parent who keeps his child out of school to help with the farm work. One hesitates to coerce one's neighbor. Compulsory education laws are, therefore, much better enforced by the state or county authorities than by local authorities.

In like fashion the state can better maintain high standards with regard to the qualifications of teachers than can the small community. There was a time, in the early days of American schools, when the local districts decided whom they would employ to teach in their schools, but that turned out to be a matter that could not be left to local judgment if the rights of the children and of the teachers were to be protected. The local authorities were influenced by their own immediate relations to some candidate or

by the cheapness of a candidate. The state faces the matter in a less personal and therefore a less biased way, and the state appropriates large sums to carry out its insistence that teachers shall have training and special qualifications for their positions.

The state, with its insistence on higher standards, with its appropriations of money, with its broader views, can influence local districts in one of two ways: It can compel action or it can lead the local community to see the wisdom of adopting higher standards. The method of state action in New York state has been in several notable instances that of compulsion. While compulsion has brought quick results, it has not always brought a favorable attitude on the part of the people of the state toward progress in school affairs. For example, there are now 208 district superintendents in the state, and every rural school district is in some supervisory territory. The people of the state, however, are not by any means universally favorable to the system. The state pays these superintendents; it issues its orders through them. They have the right by statute to condemn buildings and order repairs; they have also the right to reconstruct district boundaries. Evidence secured in the survey shows that many people are for these very reasons unfavorable to the superintendent and suspicious of him.

Some people, in their desire for local autonomy, lose sight of the fact that experience has shown that it is desirable for the state to control such school responsibilities as have been discussed. Some of these functions have been so controlled because the state can do them more economically or more efficiently. Others have been given to state authorities because the people of the state found it necessary to do so in order that the state may provide for its future safety in an intelligent citizenry. Measures designed to accomplish these ends have been written into the statutes from time to time because the state has found, through experience, that the collective interests of the whole state and the collective judgments of the larger community are in general broader and safer than the interests and judgments of small local groups of citizens. The State Department of Education was set up by representatives of the local districts. There can be no evasion of the fact that whatever

is enacted in state legislation is done under the sanction of a representative government.

CONSOLIDATION OF SCHOOLS

To be sure there are occasions when, through lack of information or through bias, those who represent the people or those who enforce state laws are for a time oppressive in their interpretations and unwise in their action. There are some cases where central authority has been unwisely used. The only step which can be safely recommended in such cases is a reversal of action previously taken. This should be accompanied by change of viewpoint on the part of those who have administrative responsibility. When this is done, all parties are certain to be relieved and the situation will improve. An instance of where such action appears desirable exists in the matter of redefining district boundaries. The law provides that the people of various districts may, under certain conditions, reconstruct the district lines. The law also provides that the district superintendent may redefine districts without the consent of the people. In general, where such action has been taken, the motive has been to compel some weak district which had only a few children to consolidate with a neighboring strong district which had a larger group of children, so that in the end there should be a larger school of the type known as a consolidated school.

The rural people of New York state are in a great many cases—one might say in the majority of cases—opposed to consolidation of schools and even to the redefining of district lines. To be sure, the farmer knows that the little school cannot carry his child very far on the road to knowledge; it certainly cannot give the child a high school education. He knows that a little school with small attendance is very expensive per pupil. He knows that the equipment is meager and the teacher usually less well qualified for his or her work than the teachers in the schools of the neighboring towns. But the farmer will resist to the bitter end any movement on the part of the district superintendent or of the state to set up a well-equipped, graded school through compulsory consolidation. The replies in the questionnaires sent to rural school patrons showed that they were in the majority of cases very much afraid of "forced

consolidation of schools." In most communities people are not in an attitude of mind to consider the question as applied to their community on its merits. In view of this condition and the fact that this is a function over which the laymen should retain control it would appear wise to repeal that portion of the act which gives to district superintendents of schools the power to redefine district boundaries.

DEFECTS OF THE DISTRICT SYSTEM

While it seems desirable to place a larger emphasis on local initiative in a considerable range of school problems, and especially in the matter of consolidation, it must be acknowledged that one of the greatest evils of the New York state rural school system is the small school district. The smallness of the districts leads to the most striking inequalities in taxation and to inefficiencies of administration so glaring that people who are willing to consider the question on its merits can be led to see the necessity of a change through a straightforward statement of the case.

Before reviewing the criticisms of the present small district it is important that the minds of readers be freed from one possible source of misunderstanding. An increase in the size of a school district is not to be confused at all with the consolidation of schools. A large school district may have several schools. This is the case in every city in the state. The city is a unit of taxation and a unit of administration, but it does not limit its school operations to a single building. What the rural people of New York state object to ordinarily is having the pupils from several school buildings sent to one building. Consolidation of schools has been disposed of, so far as this report is concerned, by the recommendation made in an earlier paragraph. Let consolidations come only at the option of the people, not under compulsion from the district superintendents or the State Department. When, on the other hand, this report states, as it must, that the small district is the bane of New York state education, and when it advocates, as it must, a reform in this matter, the argument is not for consolidation of schools but about a correction of difficulties in taxation and control which grow out of the small size and consequent inefficiency of the governing unit.

The most striking evidence that the small unit is a source of gross injustice appears in the fact that again and again common school districts can be found which lie next to each other and have about the same number of pupils, but are widely different in the value of their assessable property. For example, a district having a railroad or a factory will have a high valuation, a neighboring district made up entirely of farming land will have a very low valuation. These conditions will always continue as long as districts are as small as they are now. There ought to be a large enough unit drawn on in each case so that the advantages of the tax derived from the factory or the railroad will be distributed to all the people who contribute even indirectly to the life of the community.

The evils of the small district as now organized are not alone in matters of taxation. The present district has no adequate machinery for the consideration of policies and for the adoption of progressive plans. The present district is governed by the school meeting and by the trustee. The survey secured as many reports as possible from school meetings held last May, and it has canvassed, by means of question blanks and by observation, the activities of trustees. The school meeting is commonly attended by only a very small fraction of the tax-payers of the district. The only occasion when attendance is likely to be large is when there is a controversy on. In general, the meeting is not supplied with any report of what was accomplished the year before nor with any well-worked-out plans for the future. As for the trustee, he very often received the election because it was understood that he would keep the taxes down. Not infrequently he is a man who was not at the meeting. He does not desire the office; has often had no experience in such an office; and is now very sure that he will never accept it again.

Example after example was found which goes to show that the school meeting and the school trustee are very often unsatisfactory agencies for the promotion of good schools. There are, of course, good trustees conducting good schools. Criticism is here made because, under the present system, it is possible and frequently happens that the organization is inefficient. It should be remembered that both the school meeting and the trustee are granted by

statute powers that are very far reaching. When these significant powers are used, as they sometimes are for the purpose of keeping down taxes, they constitute a serious danger which menaces the future of the boys and girls of New York state.

Finally, the small district cannot cope with the growing demands for a better education of higher grade. The small district cannot have a high school. The farmers of New York state are going to demand for the children free access to education higher than that given in the grades. They have made their demands felt to the point where the state legislature has enacted laws paying the tuition of pupils out of the state treasury. There can be no doubt that the farmers will carry this insistence further. They will demand a voice in the conduct of these schools, and they will demand transportation which will make it easy for their children to go to the schools. All this means that the farmer will have to be part of a district large enough to support a high school.

It cannot be too often or too emphatically asserted that all this does not mean that the farmer will have to give up the primary school near his home in order to secure high school privileges for his older children. A larger district containing a high school may contain primary schools. The larger district will provide larger facilities. How these facilities shall be distributed should be left to the people in that larger district. Reference of all matters of consolidation to the people we favor as a first step. The second step is the enlargement of the district.

REASONS FOR A LARGER UNIT

In advocating the erection of a new type of district which shall correct the evils arising from the small size of the present common school district, the committee realizes that it will have to meet a deep-seated devotion on the part of the people of the state to the existing districts. In the formation of the new unit it believes the boundaries of these should be left as they are except as they may be changed by a vote of the people.

Earnest consideration has been given to all phases of the problem before proposing the new unit for local administration. In the discussion which follows sight should not be lost of the fact that in

an important sense the small local district is now a part of the larger school unit of the state. In the training of teachers, compulsory attendance, state grants of money for maintenance, and other matters prescribed by law the unit of control is the state. The friction which now arises as a result of authority exercised by the state is in part due to the fact that there is a difference between localities in their needs. The state as the larger unit often does not deal wisely with local variations. State regulations tend to become mechanical and uniform. When a state rule is mechanical and applied without discrimination, it seldom improves the school. Indeed, it not infrequently inflicts a serious harm because it robs the local school authorities of that initiative which should keep them on the alert for improvements that shall make education continually an improving process. This lack of flexibility is largely the result of the fact that there are many respects in which the small school district is not able to cope with the demands made by modern educational needs. To prevent neglect of the educational interests of the young people in rural communities it has been necessary for the State Department to assume functions that might better be handled by local authorities if an effective local organization were provided.

Another cause that has contributed to the development of friction is the fact that in many instances there has been a failure to make provision in legislation for a clear and wise distribution of responsibilities for the school. In the selection of teachers, textbooks, teaching equipment, and in determining course of study the laymen are undertaking responsibilities which they must in general recognize that they cannot discharge properly. On the other hand, the professional people are primarily responsible for duties that they should be carrying out only on a mandate from laymen. Further occasion for friction exists in the fact that in instances there is not a clear definition of responsibility as between local and state school authorities.

In making the foregoing criticisms of the situation sight has not been lost of the fact that they would be harmful rather than helpful if they were not accompanied by constructive recommendations. A very large part of the work of the experts employed by the com-

mittee in connection with this section of the survey has been, therefore, to gather from every possible source suggestions with regard to possible improvements in the present scheme of local administration. The experience of the State Department has been put freely at the disposal of the committee. It has been possible, through the committee's representatives, to secure conferences with a large majority of the district superintendents and with many trustees. The committee has canvassed the matters here under discussion very fully. Finally, the experience of other states has been drawn on for suggestions.

In this general canvass consideration has been given to a number of proposals. Thus the county unit plan has been urged as desirable. The county is a political unit, and would be well suited in size and because of its existing political machinery, to take care of school taxes. It would equalize taxes more fully than could the township or any other small unit.

On the other hand, it must be recognized that a county is too large in most cases for the administration and supervision of so intimate an institution as a school. The county is in no sense of the word a community. Its boundaries cut indifferently across hills and valleys. Its lines often run through a village or divide a district which is in local interests a closely united community. The county serves very well for political administration when interests are under consideration which are purely material and impersonal. Thus a county is a suitable unit for certain policing functions and for the distribution of state taxation, but county boundaries are in no way related to the growth of church centers and grange centers and lines of travel to the store or railroad station. The life of a community is determined in all these personal interests by the possibilities of easy transportation and communication.

After careful consideration the suggestion that the township be adopted as the unit of administration was also rejected. The township is no less arbitrary and impersonal in its boundaries than is the county. Its geometric lines show that it was laid out by rule of the surveyor, not by any demands of community organization.

THE COMMUNITY UNIT

The school is so essentially a matter of community interest and support that it ought not to be forced to adopt for its government any artificial relations. The school district of the United States has been, throughout its history, the clearest expression of the community type of organization. Holding fast to this fact an effort has been made to develop a series of formulas which will give to New York a natural system growing directly out of its present common school district, but overcoming the defects which arise from the small size and inefficient organization of that district.

The concrete details of such an organization which does not follow county lines nor township lines are as follows:

It is recommended that the common school districts of the state and the district school meetings be retained. It is further recommended that the trustee elected by each district be the representative of that district on a community board of education. This community board is to be made up of a number of trustees who come together periodically to pass on school matters, including budget and tax-rates.

The determination of the districts which shall be part of the territory of the community board of education thus constituted should be made along the following lines: All those districts shall be represented on the community board of education which are related by lines of transportation, trade, and social relations. School districts are always grouped around some town or railroad center. The roads lead into this center. Thither the people go because of their social and industrial relations. There are the store and the post-office. In this center of population is the natural location of the high school. At present the majority of school districts have no true connection with high schools, and many farm children in New York state are unable to get high school training under existing conditions.

The effect of this situation is harmful not only to pupils but to the state itself. One of the most powerful influences which has operated in recent years to liberalize the high school is the influx of pupils from all kinds of homes. The attendance on high schools two decades ago was from a small group of select families which

enjoyed superior social and economic advantages. For these highly selected children a classic and artificially restricted curriculum was not seriously objectionable. In recent years the student body has increased rapidly—not so rapidly as it would have had country children been provided with transportation, but fast enough to make an impression on the schools. With new pupils of new types came the demand for courses in vocational and technical subjects. With these pupils came also a demand for more liberal content in English and science courses. A good influence will be imported into New York state rural high schools when all pupils can enter who have the interest and capacity for a higher education.

The development of schools along the broad lines of an enriched curriculum has vitally affected both the elementary schools and high schools of the country. It has been found to be natural and advantageous to organize a division of the school intermediate between the elementary school and the high school. This intermediate school is commonly known as the junior high school. It is a thoroughly appropriate type of school for many small communities which cannot afford a four-year high school of the ordinary type. A junior high school in some centers would be the best possible institution in which to concentrate the older pupils from a number of common school districts. In such cases the younger pupils might remain in the schools nearer their homes. But all this desirable organization is lacking, first, because the officers of the State Department seem to have overlooked the need for any new intermediate schools, and, second, because New York state communities are not so organized that they can consider freely the best organization of their schools. Hard and fast boundaries encircling small districts keep pupils isolated and communities behind progressive communities in other states. An overdose of local isolation is thus proving to be a handicap to the best exercise of a genuine local initiative.

A further argument for adoption of the community unit lies in the fact that the center of population contains the largest taxable values of the region. If there is a railroad or a telephone franchise or a mill, the center of population has it and derives support from it for the schools. The remoter local districts do not share in the

income from these property values, though the farmer in the remoter districts is all the time contributing to the support of the mill, provided the road runs from his house to the mill. In short, the center of trade and social life is the natural and proper center of community organization and of community support of such an institution as a school system. The children of the remoter country districts have a right to schools supported by all the taxable property of the general community to which they belong, including high schools.

An objection which instantly suggests itself to this plan is that the community board of education will in most cases be very large. The committee considered at length the question as to whether it would not be better to recommend a small community board elected at large. Such a board would be less likely to fall into bickerings about petty matters and would be more in accord with the best experience of city systems. The committee would recommend a board elected at large if it were dealing with the situation in the abstract. There is, however, so much feeling on the part of the farmers that any reduction of local control is unacceptable that the recommendation is advanced that a large community board be organized, with power to reduce its own number.

Another serious problem which arises is that of the balance of power in such a board as between the village and the outlying rural districts. There is every evidence that the smaller outlying districts are, as a general rule, conducting at the present time poorer schools than are the villages. There is to some extent mutual fear. The farmers are afraid of the towns because they are afraid that joining with the towns may result in the disadvantage of a higher tax-rate as the price which they will have to pay for the advantage of better schools. The town people are afraid that a big community board of education on which representatives of remoter districts are in the majority will scrap their good school system in favor of a cheaper and inferior pattern of school.

It has been suggested that this objection be met by giving to villages and the outlying districts an equal number of votes. To be concrete, it has been suggested that the board be limited to six votes—three to represent the village, three to represent the rural

sections. Nothing could thus be done without the consent of both groups to some extent.

These suggestions represent ends toward which the plan proposed will move rather than the safe beginnings. It seems safer to depart only a little at first from the present district system. The most obvious defects of the present districts are their isolation and their unequal tax-rates. Let these defects be remedied. Let people learn the advantages of joint action through actual association. Let new powers and new plans of representation grow as experience dictates. A practical consideration is the means by which the boundaries of the community units may be determined. The committee believes this will be most satisfactorily accomplished by local people. It recommends for this purpose the appointment by the County Board of Supervisors in each county of a temporary commission of five persons living under the rural school law. These county commissions should do their work under the general oversight of a state commission of three persons, to consist of the State Commissioner of Education and two persons living under the rural education law, to be appointed by the Governor.

AN INTERMEDIATE UNIT

For purposes of carrying out effectively supervision and certain administrative functions it is necessary to have a district larger than the community unit. At present this need for an intermediate unit—one that stands between the state and the local district—is met by the supervisory district. Any consideration of the activities of the intermediate unit must begin with a clear recognition of the wholly inadequate character of the present supervisory district. Historically, this unit has always been backward. The people know that school organization must include a teacher and a local school trustee at one end and a State Department at the other. Why there should be supervision, why there should be an intermediate unit, is not so evident, and there has often been deep-seated objection to adding this, which seems to be an expensive and to many minds unnecessary element of school machinery. The supervisory district of New York has hobbled lamely along and is to-day so pitifully weak and so much despised that the

surveyors found a prevalent opinion in the state that the intermediate unit should be one of the chief centers, if not the chief item, of its reforming recommendations.

Such recommendations as are to be made rest on the assumption that an intermediate unit is necessary, and that it should be made strong enough and independent enough to be administratively effective. This basal assumption is derived from such considerations as the following:

The State Department is too remote from local communities to supervise their activities. New York has a very highly centralized state department. It has accumulated, during its history, vast powers through statutes and more through influence, which is not explicitly provided for in the statutes. For example, in determining the courses of study which shall be taught throughout the state, especially in the high schools, the State Department wields an influence that is preponderant. The result is that the rural high schools in New York are generally holding to requirements which are antiquated and absurd. Sometimes the influence is not only unprogressive, but arbitrary and disastrous to spirit of wholesome local initiative in developing particular line of teaching. For the last year and a half high schools have been terrorized by a handling of the requirements in biology which are utterly indefensible.

The State Department ought not to dictate the curriculum for the whole state—it cannot undertake to do so without arriving at exactly the point which has been reached in the Regents examination system, where the machinery has become so cumbersome that it is breaking down of its own weight and must either be simplified or enormously expanded.

A strong, properly organized intermediate unit, with its roots in community life and its relations so adjusted that it can secure, whenever needed, the sympathetic coöperation of a central state department, on the one hand, and the enthusiastic acceptance of local boards, on the other, could and should deal with the problems of the curriculum with the broad view and the direct view of a regional supervision. It is absurd to leave the making of a curriculum, as does the present law, to laymen. It is equally absurd

to allow a state department to take up, as it has, all powers in such a matter.

Attaching to the curriculum and necessary to its proper administration are certain supervisory activities which will always require the coöperation of larger areas that can be covered by community boards of education. If a group of community boards can employ jointly a special supervisor of agriculture, for example, they can carry on work that no one board could by itself afford to initiate. The same kind of a statement applies to the employment of a school nurse. Such examples illustrate a whole series of functions which are below the state level in regional scope, but broader than the possibilities of a single community.

Constructive leadership, such as should come from the State Department of Education, should be met by the organization of the people in a way which will make it possible for them to understand and use effectively what the State Department has to contribute to the improvement of the schools. This means that the people of the state must have a better intermediate unit of supervision and administration than that which now exists in the districts over which the district superintendents have charge.

One of the greatest defects in the present organization of the supervisory districts is that the people are not included in them except through the board of directors, who elect the superintendent once in five years and then cease to act. This lack of popular support of the superintendent is coupled with other unfortunate features. The superintendent has a few very unsavory duties, such as condemning buildings and redefining district boundaries, but he has otherwise very meager powers. He cannot remove an incompetent teacher, he cannot select text-books, he cannot determine the course of study. All he can do is to offer advice. The supervisory district is a weak organization.

The superintendents of the state are doing in many districts very valuable service for the state. They are helping the teachers and are providing educational leadership. As in all professional groups, there are among the superintendents some who are ineffective and indifferent. Some of them lack preparation for school leadership and give no signs of professional study. Their com-

plaint is that they are overloaded with clerical work, that the State Department makes a great many calls for special reports and provides no clerical assistance.

DISTRIBUTION OF FUNCTIONS

In addition to the principles of local initiative and central guidance which have been pointed out, there is one other principle which the committee wishes to call to the attention of rural school patrons. This is the principle that there must be a clear and equitable allocation of powers and duties. There are some powers which the local district has a right to retain and others which it should give up for the common good. There are some duties that a layman can perform and others that a professional officer alone has the knowledge and insight to perform. Our American history explains why the differentiation and allotment of functions have gone on slowly and with frequent blunders. Our schools were at first local institutions, conducted almost as intimately by the people as were their own families. The traditions of the American school are the traditions of a small, closely compacted community. It is hard for people to realize how rapidly the school has expanded. Few who are not trained in the details of modern education know how intricate and delicate are the problems of conducting classes and providing materials suitable for instruction. It is little wonder that the ordinary school trustee does not know what the superintendent does or why, or that the ordinary citizen does not understand why the school has passed beyond the possibilities of the simplest kind of informal control.

The cure for the present situation is to unite lay and professional officers in constructive activities. Out of this association there will come a final adjustment. The trained school officer must not be asked to condemn schools and to redefine districts without the consent of the people. It is far better that matters be adjusted at the inception than at the moment of acute failure where condemnation and coercion are the only possible methods. Lay boards and professional officers should sit down together. The professional officer should have the right and duty of recommendation. The lay board should have the power to accept or reject.

New York state is suffering to-day from a lack of clear understanding of the proper relations between its professional and lay officers and between its different units.

It is a matter of great importance that the right relations be established between the superintendents and the lay board. One aspect that should receive serious consideration is the method of his choice. The committee found, in the questionnaires that were returned by school patrons, a preponderance of opinion in favor of the election of the superintendent of this unit by a popular vote. The committee believes that it is much wiser to leave the selection of such a professional officer to the board of education of the intermediate unit. An investigation revealed the fact that this is the trend in other states. It further shows that in states where they are chosen by such boards rather than by a popular vote higher professional standards obtain. It is very desirable that the rural people of the state put the position of administrative and supervisory officer of the intermediate unit on the highest possible professional plane. The lay board that controls policies will then represent the people.

It should be noted that the plan here proposed cannot be carried out by the superposition on the community boards of a county plan. Such a neglect of the principles of community organization in favor of a return to the wholly artificial political organization would be disastrous to the spirit of the whole reorganization. The intermediate unit should be made up of a group of community districts.

AN ATTITUDE OF LEADERSHIP ON THE PART OF THE STATE

From the intermediate unit of supervision we turn to a brief consideration of certain aspects of state organization. It is not the duty of this survey to deal with the organization of the State Department of Education except in so far as it touches the rural schools in its operation.

Any one who has studied the conditions in the state is driven to the conclusion that the contacts of the State Department of Education with the rural schools have not been sufficiently intimate to be as productive as they should be. Evidence at hand seems to indicate that there are some mechanical and undesirable elements

in the Department of Education which prevent it from dealing in the most effective fashion with some of the rural school problems of the state. The offices of the assistant commissioners are now arranged in such a way as to draw artificial and harmful lines between the high school and the elementary school and between high schools and higher institutions. Specialization which separates sharply between elementary and secondary schools reduces itself to an absurdity when applied to districts of fewer than 4500 inhabitants. Other examples of remoteness and inadequacy of administration are not wanting.

The examination system is becoming very cumbersome because it is too detailed in its dictations regarding the course of study. The absence of effective methods of training district superintendents for their work, which training should be provided by the State Department, results in many cases in weak supervision and administration in the field. This reacts unfavorably on the influence of the State Department.

There should be, we believe, a revision of the method of operation in the State Department. Vigorous constructive contributions to the work of school officers should become the policy instead of dictation and mere inspection. To this end it is suggested that reorganization of the State Department should go far enough at least to emphasize as a major duty and a distinct problem the constructive administration and supervision of rural schools.

In pointing out thus frankly some defects in the present state organization there is danger that this survey will create in the minds of some readers the impression that the committee, like many a citizen, is disposed to load on the shoulders of the State Department of Education all the sins of a school generation. The fact is that no one can have a keener appreciation than has the committee of the courage and forward-looking attitude of the department. In all matters of aggressive reform the leader in education in New York state has been the State Department. It embodies the best ideas of the school system. It has been bold to push these ideas and set in motion policies which have made them effective. Where there has been failure, the fault has been, in the vast majority of cases, due to the system and to the inevitable limitations

of personal judgment. The State Department is at the center of the picture, and as such will have to accept the conspicuousness which naturally results from its position.

It would appear that the relations of the State Department to the situation can be greatly improved by the adoption, throughout, of a spirit of leadership rather than dictation. There are numerous examples of sympathetic leadership which justify this judgment. For example, in the Division of Vocational Education, at the present time, the plan of dealing with courses of study is admirable and highly successful. The officers of the department call on localities to outline the type of work which seems to fit the needs of the locality. When local plans have thus been formulated, they are subjected to the Division for searching and sympathetic criticism and returned with suggestion for revision. A series of conferences follows which work out the plan finally adopted. Here is an example which illustrates admirably the way in which local autonomy can be preserved and central authority utilized to contribute improvement.

Another illustration is to be found in the recent conferences organized by the department for the better training in supervisory technic of the district superintendents. Most of these superintendents are deficient in technic. No one recognized this more fully than they themselves. The State Department can do a great service in giving a good deal of attention to the training of superintendents who are in office. It has at its hand the coöperation of several state institutions and institutions within the state which can be utilized to great advantage for this purpose. In fact, the move had already been made at the State College of Agriculture before it was taken up by the department to provide, in a short series of conferences, for an introduction of the district superintendents to the modern methods of educational measurements.

The State Department has recently organized a division of tests and measurements. Too much cannot be said in favor of such an innovation. Too much cannot be said in favor of an exercise of state authority as well as state training to raise the standards of the teaching force. There might very properly be a rapid elevation of the requirements imposed on district superintendents of con-

tinued study if they are to be reelected, and there might properly be an elimination of some of the teaching certificates which have been necessary perhaps during the period of scarcity of teachers through which New York and the country as a whole have passed in recent years.

The recommendations which have been made throughout this report are aimed at the establishment of the principle of local initiative, guided by the broader leadership on the part of the intermediate and state units and a better distribution of responsibilities for the schools between the different units and the lay and professional interests. The people must be trained to be intelligently interested in their schools. They must be brought along or there will be no genuine improvement in the schools.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The committee recommends that the community be made the unit of local administration. In the formation of this new unit the present district boundaries should remain as they are unless changed by a vote of the districts.

2. The board of education of community unit should be constituted as follows:

- (a) Each common school district and each union free school district without an academic department to have one member.
- (b) A union free school district (or districts) with an academic department may determine the number of its representatives, not to exceed the number from the outlying districts in the unit.
- (c) In case of consolidation of districts after the community units are formed, the consolidated districts may retain the same number of members as there were in the districts previous to consolidation if the districts desire.
- (d) This large board may delegate certain functions (see proposed distribution of functions) to a smaller group.
- (e) The community unit may adopt (by a majority vote, both of districts and of the people) one of the following organizations in lieu of the above:

I. A small board with equal number from country and union free school district or districts with academic departments.

II. Small board elected at large.

3. Actual traveling expenses may be allowed for attendance at meetings; to be determined by community board. Such expenses shall be allowed when a member goes to any meeting as the authorized representative of the board.

4. The district superintendent should be the means of connecting community and intermediate boards and have the supervision, and such other duties as are delegated to him by the community board, of the common school districts. After 1926 the superintendent should be the professional head of all the schools under the jurisdiction of the community board.

5. The compulsory consolidation law should be repealed.

6. Each community unit should make provision for four years of high school instruction, either within or without its bounds, and for transportation or a suitable substitute wherever necessary except when exempted by the intermediate board because of impracticability.

(a) The community board may pay tuition for pupils who must attend some high school outside the community unit in order to secure special courses not available in the community, and they should pay it in the unit with which arrangements have been made for regular academic instruction when a complete academic department is not maintained in the unit.

7. Community boundaries should be determined by a commission appointed by the County Board of Supervisors from among those living under the rural education law.

8. There should be a state commission, consisting of the Commissioner of Education and two members living under the rural education law, appointed by the Governor, to act as a board of appeal on boundary questions and to adjust problems of representation as between union free school districts and common school districts.

9. Qualifications for voting at school elections should be same as at general elections in rural districts.

10. There should be a board of education for each intermediate unit composed of one member from each community district elected by the community board from its membership. When this gives a membership of less than three, the number should be determined by the State Commission on Boundaries.

(a) Term of office, two years, half being elected each year.

11. The district superintendent should be the professional officer of this board.

(a) In general he is to recommend policies to the board (such as are within the province of the intermediate unit) and is to execute its decisions.

(b) Qualifications.

I. Old superintendents: Four years' experience as district superintendents and one-half year of professional training for rural school leadership.

II. New superintendents: College graduate with three years of experience and one year of professional training for rural school leadership.

(c) Term of office, three years.

12. The State Commission on Community Boundaries should determine the groupings of the community units into intermediate units, making provision for 208 intermediate units until 1926. After that date they should determine the number of intermediate units for the state.

In order to develop the most effective schools, each unit should contribute something in the way of school control. The general principle is that no higher unit should do what a lesser unit can or will do satisfactorily. The committee is not prepared to recommend the *exact* division of functions in regard to any problem. However, a general division may be made in terms of the principle stated and this has been done. The details can be settled only after some experience with the new organization has given enough facts as a basis for conclusion. Where the letter "f" is given after a function of the community board, that function is to be performed by the full board, not by its delegated representatives.

PROPOSED DISTRIBUTION OF FUNCTIONS

Present District	Community Board	Intermediate Board
Elect trustee (unless small board is adopted)	Budget and tax (f)	Select district superintendent
Pass upon abolition of district	Selection and location of teachers (on nomination of superintendent or principal) (f)	Levy taxes for administrative and supervisory activities
	Power to close school for one year (f)	Redefine boundaries of community units
	Curriculum (contributions and adaptations largely through teaching force)	Approve consolidation plans
	Selection and adoption of text-books (not in conflict with rules of intermediate board)	Select and adopt text-books.
	Buildings, care of new (f)	Curriculum (not in conflict with state)
	Purchase supplies	Library (not in conflict with state)
	Library (not in conflict with rules of intermediate board)	

The community board is to perform most of the functions in school control. Only where the welfare of the schools demands that larger groups act together is this power curtailed. The intermediate board serves the general function of keeping school control nearer the people by enabling them to solve many problems that now must, because of our organization, go to the state. The district superintendent becomes primarily the representative of the communities, not of the state. However, there are many functions that should be left to the state: raising funds for equalization and stimulation; training and certificating teachers; establishing minimum standards; collecting facts as the basis for school improvement, etc. The intermediate board and the district superintendent will naturally be utilized by the state in carrying on its function.

12. The committee believes that the magnitude of rural education problems in the state makes it very important that the State Department of Education be provided with as effective an organization as possible for handling them. To this end it suggests that some arrangement be made within the State Department of Education by which original jurisdiction over elementary and secondary education and the training of rural school teachers be placed in the hands of some person directly responsible to the Commissioner of Education. The committee is of the opinion that this end would be best attained by an Assistant Commissioner of Rural Education, but if the Board of Regents can devise a more effective method, it would be regarded as acceptable.

CHAPTER XIII

SCHOOL SUPPORT

COSTS

HOW much do the common schools of the state cost? There are a number of ways in which the question may be answered, each of which has some advantage over the other. First, take the cost per school, meaning by this a group of children in charge of a teacher, and see how with this unit of measure the costs of common school districts in one section of the state compare with costs of schools in other portions of the state.

The first thing that strikes our attention is the great differences in the amounts expended among schools in different counties. Examples of this are furnished by the studies that were made of costs, for the year 1920, in the common school districts in the first supervisory district in each of Delaware, Monroe, and Tompkins Counties. The median cost in Delaware was \$723; in Tompkins, \$785, and in Monroe, \$991. A second fact of interest that was brought out in these studies is the great difference in costs within each supervisory district, whether its general trend of costs was high, low, or average. The extremes in cost for each county were as follows: Delaware—one school had a cost somewhere between \$675–\$699; while in another common school district the cost was between \$1425–\$1449; the extremes for Tompkins were one school with costs between \$600–\$624, and another with costs between \$1100–\$1124. Monroe's cheapest school was maintained at a cost between \$775–\$779, while there were three with costs of over \$1500 each. Throughout the entire state, neighboring districts differ greatly among themselves in the cost of schools. Even when no account is taken of the cost for repairs which brings up the costs of certain districts, it is frequently found that one school will cost

from one and a half to two times as much as a neighboring school. When the costs are segregated for such items as instruction, supplies, janitor service, and other items, it is found that for each of these items there are pronounced differences in extent to which districts are spending their funds.

COST BASED ON ATTENDANCE.—Another way of studying costs of schools is to compare cost per pupil in attendance. The difference between this method and the cost per school unit as represented by the cost per teacher can be illustrated as follows: If a farmer who has cultivated a field of corn during the past year studies his costs, he may compare his cost per acre cultivated with the cost of the previous year. He would include his own labor, that of his hired men, the cost of his seed, of repairs to his machinery, etc. Supposing that he found his cost per acre compared very favorably with the cost of his neighbors', should he then be satisfied with his study? It is readily seen that from a good business standpoint it is more important to find the cost per bushel of corn that came off his field compared with the cost of his neighbors' for each bushel off their fields, because his success in making money by farming depends more on the cost of each unit of product raised than upon each unit of land cultivated. So it is in every occupation—the cost per unit of product is far more significant than the cost of the unit of space or department utilized.

The nearest approach to a unit of product of the school which is practicable for our present purpose is the average daily attendance for the year. It gives us the cost of educating one pupil every day throughout the entire year, or, briefly, the cost of one year's schooling for one pupil. Some day we may be able to express our product in terms of units of arithmetic, reading, character, etc., developed during a year, but we cannot do it now. The cost per pupil in average daily attendance for each district was determined for the three supervisory districts previously mentioned. As in the case of costs per school, very wide differences were found within each county.

In Delaware County it cost 11 times as much in one district to get the same amount of product as in a neighboring district. Even greater differences than this are not unusual; in the second super-

visory district of Delaware County it cost 33 times as much in one district as in another. The difference in the general trend of product costs in the three counties is also apparent. The striking fact in this connection is that the counties are in the reverse order to what they were in cost per school. The median cost per pupil in average daily attendance for each county was: Delaware, \$77; Tompkins, \$74; and Monroe, \$49. Delaware County put the least money into its enterprise and had the highest costs, while Monroe put in the most and had the lowest cost per unit of product. Such a situation as this would seem improbable to one not acquainted with rural schools. It plainly indicates that there is waste; the reasons for it and the remedies proposed will be discussed in a later section.

COST OF SCHOOLS IN THE COMMON SCHOOL DISTRICT COMPARED WITH COSTS IN THE UNION FREE SCHOOL DISTRICTS AND VILLAGES AND CITIES.—That the costs per teacher in each of these classes of districts are higher than those of the rural schools is known to everybody. The minimum salary law requires higher salaries. In the common school district the minimum salary is \$20; in the union free, \$20; cities and villages, \$27.50–\$37.50. These differences are alone sufficient to establish the point, since teachers' salaries make at least 60 percent of the total cost in cities and 80 percent in rural communities. We should bear in mind then that from the standpoint of the cost per school unit—a group of pupils under a teacher—the rural schools as a group have the lowest costs.

Let us now turn to the cost of the unit of product as represented in the cost per pupil in daily attendance.

Table 33 gives us the material that will enable us to canvass the situation. The data for the common school districts involve all of such districts in 24 supervisory districts; the data for the union free school district involve all such districts in 24 districts, scattered in both cases over the entire state, while in the last two columns all the villages and cities are included.

The most striking fact in the table is the wide spread in the costs of the rural schools. The next fact in importance is the small number of rural districts in which the costs are less than those of the lowest cost villages and cities—only about four out of every 100

TABLE 33.—TOTAL AMOUNT EXPENDED PER PUPIL IN COMMON AND UNION FREE SCHOOL DISTRICTS AND CITIES AND VILLAGES UNDER SUPERINTENDENTS

Total Amount Expended per Pupil	Year Ending July 31, 1920			Total
	Common School Districts	Union Free School Districts	Villages and Cities under Superintendent	
\$0-4.99
5-9.99
10-14.99
15-19.99
20-24.99	6	6
25-29.99	8	8
30-34.99	29	29
35-39.99	50	1	1	52
40-44.99	69	4	1	74
45-49.99	91	8	5	104
50-54.99	90	8	21	119
55-59.99	79	13	15	107
60-64.99	84	11	27	122
65-69.99	61	9	9	79
70-74.99	60	6	11	77
75-79.99	45	9	5	59
80-84.99	38	3	3	44
85-89.99	42	2	1	45
90-94.99	33	2	..	37
95-99.99	31	3	2	36
100-104.99	25	..	1	26
105-109.99	20	..	1	21
110-114.99	16	1	..	17
115-119.99	15	15
120-124.99	14	14
125-129.99	11.	11
130-134.99	10	..	1	11
135-139.99	8	8
140-144.99	6	6
145-149.99	10	10
150-154.99	6	6
155-159.99	10	10
160-164.99	3	3
165-169.99	5	5
170-174.99	1	1
175-179.99	5	5
180-184.99	3	3
185 and over	22	1	..	23
Total	1008	81	104	1193
Medians	64.9	62.9	61.6	63.9

such districts. On the other hand, one out of every 100 rural schools costs more than the schools in the highest cost city.

Using the medians as a single measure to represent these columns of figures, we find that the costs of the common school districts as a whole are \$1.79 per pupil higher than in union free school districts, \$2.24 higher than in villages, and \$3.76 higher than in cities. And we should remember that in these other districts the terms of school are longer and that costs of high schools are included. If figures were available for elementary schools alone in these districts, the differences would be much greater—at least \$6.00 more in each case. The cost of schools per child in the median rural school is \$10 more than in the median city school, with all its superior advantages. Is this what the rural people want? Do they realize that in every fifth rural school the cost is over \$100 per child? Again, may we ask, should the state continue to support schools with such high costs unless it can be shown that there is no other feasible way of providing education for the children attending them?

A more detailed statement of costs is given in Table 34:

TABLE 34.—MEDIAN FOR COSTS PER PUPIL IN DOLLARS IN CITIES, VILLAGES, UNION FREE SCHOOLS, AND COMMON SCHOOL DISTRICTS, YEAR ENDING JULY 31, 1920

School District	Total Expenses	Teachers' Salaries	Other Expenses of Instruction	Wages of Janitors	Cost of Fuel	Cost of Maintenance	Auxiliary Agencies
Cities.....	61.00	38.42	2.81	3.66	3.28	2.16	1.69
Villages....	62.50	40.71	2.37	3.38	3.41	1.82	1.43
Union Free	62.95	46.73	1.60	3.31	4.20	1.72	0.92
Common .	64.76	50.94	1.49	1.56	3.52	0.85	0.85

The significant point in this table is the relatively high costs for teachers' salaries and the low costs for everything else. When one recalls the smaller enrolment in the rural schools, it is evident that such schools spend very little for teaching supplies, for repairs and replacement of furniture and equipment, for libraries, for health, and for transportation. The material elements that go to make up a school are much more limited than in the city schools.

TABLE 35.—RELATIONSHIP OF COST PER PUPIL, COST PER TEACHER, AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE. DELAWARE NO. 1. YEAR ENDING JULY 31, 1920

District	Total Cost per Teacher	Cost per Pupil	Average Daily Attendance
Hancock No. 8.	\$671	\$22.70	30
Colchester No. 15.	648	34.25	16
Hancock No. 18.	1044	37.13	28
Colchester No. 2.	936	39.55	23
“ No. 19.	693	43.51	16
“ No. 17.	937	44.62	21
“ No. 11.	543	45.30	10
“ No. 23.	955	45.47	21
“ No. 5.	917	45.85	20
Hancock No. 5.	839	46.61	18
“ No. 12.	891	48.16	18
“ No. 21.	622	51.83	12
“ No. 16.	1004	51.96	19
Colchester No. 19.	566	56.60	10
“ No. 26.	696	58.00	12
Hancock No. 22.	553	61.44	9
Colchester No. 14.	703	61.56	11
Hancock No. 3.	1088	64.00	17
“ No. 24.	780	65.00	12
Colchester No. 24.	748	68.00	11
“ No. 8.	615	68.53	9
Hancock No. 15.	844	70.33	12
“ No. 9.	1091	74.39	12
“ No. 23.	1092	84.00	13
“ No. 26.	924	84.00	11
Colchester No. 7.	599	85.57	7
Hancock No. 17.	798	88.66	9
Colchester No. 27.	711	88.77	8
“ No. 28.	743	91.87	8
“ No. 1.	655	93.57	7
“ No. 20.	669	95.57	7
Hancock No. 19.	1469	97.93	15
“ No. 1.	1112	101.13	11
Colchester No. 4.	725	103.64	7
Hancock No. 14.	1224	112.74	11
“ No. 11.	1262	114.72	5
Colchester No. 18.	601	120.20	5
“ No. 6.	607	121.40	5
“ No. 30.	629	125.80	5
Hancock No. 7.	506	128.50	4
“ No. 12.	654	130.80	5
Colchester No. 13.	549	137.25	4
Hancock No. 10.	774	154.80	5
“ No. 6.	1157	165.28	7
Colchester No. 16.	666	166.50	4
“ No. 22.	520	173.33	3
Hancock No. 25.	746	248.66	3
“ No. 2.	641	641.00	1
“ No. 27.	762	762.00	1

Economies That Can be Introduced.—In considering this question remember that, while in the study of the three supervisory districts in the counties mentioned, the costs per teacher averaged highest in Delaware, lowest in Monroe, with Tompkins between, when the comparison was based on the cost per unit of product (average daily attendance), Delaware and Monroe Counties were reversed.

The most important influence in making Delaware County have high costs per unit of product, notwithstanding the low cost per teacher, is the small number of pupils in certain of its schools. Table 35 gives the facts which warrant this conclusion.

A similar study, made by Dr. Wiley, of the State Department, of four towns in Washington County, reveals the same situation and reaches the same conclusions.

The importance of this factor in high costs of schools throughout the entire state is established by the fact that of the 8600 one-room rural schools, 3611, or 42 percent, have in attendance 10 pupils or less. The number of schools having a daily attendance of 10 or less are shown in the following table (Dr. Wiley's Study):

TABLE 36.—SHOWING NUMBER OF SCHOOLS WITH AVERAGE DAILY OF 1 TO 10 PUPILS

Average Daily Attendance	Number of Schools
1 pupil.....	15
2 pupils.....	52
3 ".....	167
4 ".....	259
5 ".....	392
6 ".....	430
7 ".....	556
8 ".....	535
9 ".....	612
10 ".....	593

It is evident that, from the standpoint of cost, some rural schools are much better off than others. While cost is not the only factor to be considered in the running of a school, it must be said that it is something almost every tax-payer thinks about. The difficulty is that most tax-payers look at the question from the wrong end—how much the community puts in rather than how much it gets out for what it does put in. Surely twice as many educated boys and girls for the same amount of money expended is a very desirable end to secure. If a farmer had to pay tuition for

the education of his children and had an opportunity to send them to two schools equally good, one of which charged \$75 per pupil and the other \$37.50, he would take them to the latter school, even if it were two or three times as far from his home. It is just as logical that two small public schools situated not far apart should be combined and conducted for the cost of one, even if it does cause inconvenience through longer travel. Such a plan secures the highest justice to all. Quite a number of cases in which such combinations should occur were found by the survey.

But this still leaves us the one-room rural school. Other sections of the survey have shown the advantages of the combined school, in which each teacher has not more than two grades and in which there is opportunity for a more enriched curriculum. This type of school often requires transportation of pupils, the cost of which is sometimes, although not usually, as great as the salary of a teacher. Under such circumstances it is then a question of whether more shall not be secured for the same expenditure of money. Every good manager is interested in making his dollar purchase the most goods. Why not in the schools? The cost of such reorganized schools, including costs of transportation, will be presented in a later section.

While an insufficiently pupiled school is the chief reason for the high cost of education in the rural schools, poor business management has also had its influence.

HOW CAREFULLY DOES THE COMMON SCHOOL DISTRICT SPEND ITS MONEY?—While many rural school districts make the keeping down of the tax-rate the chief object of their administration, the measures taken to make an economical expenditure of the money spent are faulty. This is proved by the replies made to certain questions by 128 district superintendents and 944 school directors scattered throughout the entire state. Budgets are not prepared in 50 percent of the districts and in only one-half of these cases is the advice of the district superintendent obtained. Supplies are purchased as needed from local stores in 90 percent of the districts, and at regular retail prices in practically all districts, instead of purchases being made at one time and in quantities which would secure wholesale prices. As a result, supplies cost 20 percent more

than they should. Again, taxes are not collected promptly in three-fourths of the districts, and the moneys so received are, in but few cases, placed on deposit in banks at interest,—thus losing 2 or more percent on the amounts in deposit. It would seem as though the district school has been managed as a large family affair, and with all the looseness that usually accompanies such management. While arising from this form of management, there may at times be certain advantages and certain satisfactions to parents and land-owners, nevertheless it is inefficient, and the minor benefits, usually selfish and spurious in character, should be surrendered for the larger good which would be secured from expert participation, business-like purchases, and careful care of funds. These would be most certainly secured in the adoption of a larger administrative territorial unit.

SUMMARY.—1. Costs per school unit (per teacher) in common school districts vary greatly in the same supervisory districts.

2. The general trend of costs for school units in the various supervisory districts, as represented by the median, varies greatly in different portions of the state.

3. Costs of schools in common school districts per unit of product (per pupil in average attendance) are frequently highest in those districts for which costs per school unit are lowest, and vice versa.

4. Costs (per pupil) for elementary education alone are higher in common schools than costs in union free school districts, in the villages, and in the cities for elementary and high schools and vocational schools combined.

5. The small enrolment in the common school districts is the most important factor in bringing about these results, while another factor is poor business management.

THE TAX BURDEN

The amount of the tax-rate for schools depends upon two factors—the amount of money that the district desires or must spend in addition to that which comes from the state, and the value of its property taxable for school purposes. If two districts spend equal amounts obtained from local taxes for schools, and the one has but one-half the amount of taxable property that the other has, the tax-rate of the first district will be twice that of the second. In our

study of tax-rates we shall follow a method similar to that observed in the study of costs.

At the outset we are met with a peculiar difficulty which must be circumvented, namely, the inequalities in the assessment of property. We do not need to concern ourselves in this connection with the inequalities in value among individual holders of property in the same districts, but rather the differences in the general trend of assessment rates as they are found among the various tax districts. It is important for us to know that, on the whole, in one town property in general is assessed at 50 percent of its true value, and that in another town it is assessed at approximately 75 percent of its true value. In each case, no doubt, the assessor has assessed several pieces of property below 75 and 50 percent respectively, and other pieces of property at higher percentages. It would be unusual to find a district in which there would not be extremes in both directions, depending upon the judgment of the assessors and the influences that have been brought to bear upon them.

Nevertheless we can ascertain, by careful comparisons of the sale prices of property and of the assessed valuations of the same property, the average rate of assessments in the various towns of the state. This is the work that the Tax Commission of the state is constantly engaged in. It is an impartial body and follows a scientific method. Their results are available and can be readily utilized. We have made use of them in this study.

The equalization rates for the various cities, villages, and towns in the state furnish the means by which the true valuation of the taxable property can be ascertained, that is, the value of the property, if it were assessed at 100 percent of its value, rather than at 75 or 50 percent. In New York state this is commonly called the equalized valuation, because these are the figures used by the State Tax Commission in equalizing the state tax among the different counties so that each county shall bear its fair share. The equalization rates determined for the various towns have been worked up by the Tax Commission in order to assist in the determination of the equalization rates in the counties. In this study these true valuations will be called the equalized valuations, in order to conform with popular usage.

TABLE 37.—EQUALIZED TAX-RATE FOR THE FIRST SUPERVISORY DISTRICTS OF DELAWARE, MONROE, AND TOMPKINS COUNTIES. COMMON SCHOOLS, YEAR ENDING JULY 31, 1920

Equalized Tax-Rate, Mills	Delaware No. 1 No.	Monroe No. 1 No.	Tompkins No. 1 No.	Total No.
0- 0.99	..	2	..	2
1- 1.99	2	3	..	5
2- 2.99	..	11	1	12
3- 3.99	2	13	3	18
4- 4.99	6	3	4	13
5- 5.99	9	5	5	19
6- 6.99	3	2	6	11
7- 7.99	5	..	5	10
8- 8.99	2	..	4	6
9- 9.99	6	..	2	8
10-10.99	5	5
11-11.99	4	..	2	6
12-12.99	2	2
13-13.99	1	..	1	2
14-14.99	1	1
15-15.99
16-16.99	1	1
17-17.99	1	..	3	4
18-18.99
19-19.99	1	1
20-20.99	1	1
21-21.99
22-22.99
23-23.99
24-24.99	1	1
25-25.99
26-26.99
27-27.99
28-28.99
29-29.99
30-30.99	1	1
31-31.99
32-32.99	1	1
33-33.99	1	1
Total . . .	54	39	38	131
Medians..	8.00	3.26	7.00	5.81

The equalization rates given by the Tax Commission also enable us to ascertain the true tax-rate in any school district by multiplying the actual rate by the rate of equalization, that is, if the rate as assessed is 10 mills and the rate of equalization is 80 mills, the true tax-rate is 8 mills. In this study this true tax-rate will be

called the equalized tax-rate. In Table 37 are given the equalized tax-rates for the first supervisory districts of Delaware, Monroe, and Tompkins Counties.

The same marked variations in tax-rates within each supervisory district are apparent here as were found in the previous section in regard to cost per teacher and also cost per pupil. Monroe County is lowest, Tompkins is in the middle, and Delaware is highest. The variation is greatest in Delaware County and least in Monroe County. These two supervisory districts are typical of two extremes of variation, as will be seen from the following table. In Delaware County No. 1, it is observed that the highest tax-rate is twenty times as much as the lowest; while in Monroe No. 1, the highest tax-rate is six times as much as the lowest.

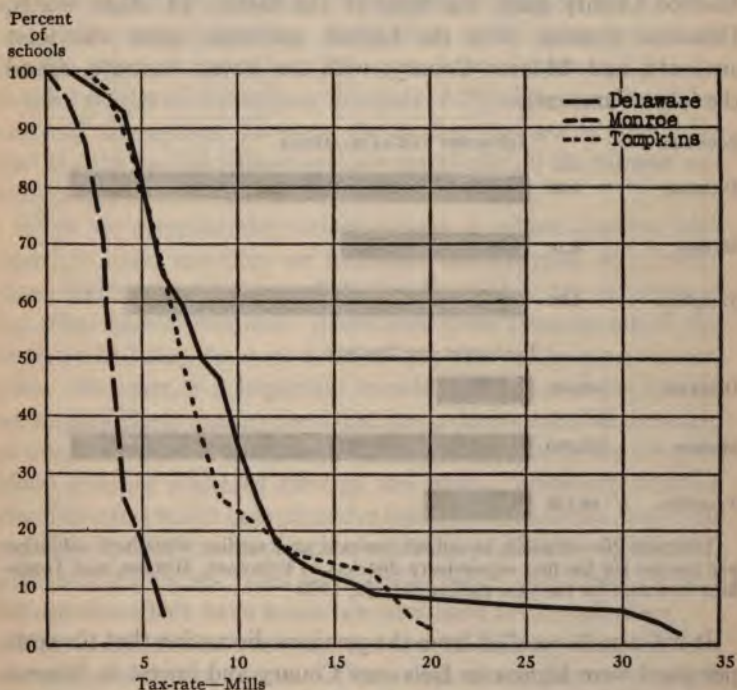


Diagram 19.—Equalized tax-rate for the first supervisory districts of Delaware, Monroe, and Tompkins Counties. Tax-rate equal to or greater than amounts shown

Looking at the general trend of the tax-rates in these three counties, it has been noticed that on the whole tax-rates are lowest in Monroe and highest in Delaware, and that in Tompkins they lie between the two, although tending to correspond more closely with Delaware than with Monroe, and the median tax-rates for these supervisory districts are 3.26 for Monroe, 7.00 for Tompkins, and 8.00 for Delaware.

It is seen that the property-owners in Delaware County, Supervisory District No. 1, bear, on the whole, a tax burden two and one-half times as great as the property-holders of Monroe County. It was found in the discussion of costs that this supervisory district in Delaware County spent a less amount of money upon each of its school units than did either Tompkins or Monroe, while Monroe County spent the most of the three. In other words, Delaware County, with the highest tax-rates, spent the least amounts, and Monroe County, with the lowest tax-rate, raised the largest amounts.

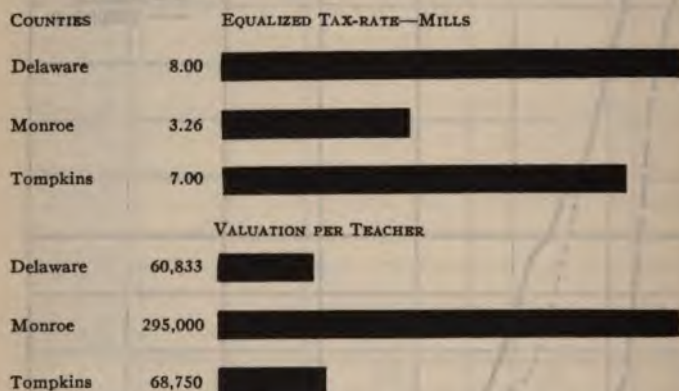


Diagram 20.—Median equalized tax-rate and median equalized valuation per teacher for the first supervisory districts of Delaware, Monroe, and Tompkins Counties for the year ending July 31, 1920

It will also be recalled from the previous discussion that the costs per pupil were highest in Delaware County and lowest in Monroe County. In other words, Delaware County, which is compelled to exert itself the most, can with all its exertion raise the least

amount, and then, in spending that least amount, is compelled to pay the largest amount for the product it receives as compared with the other two counties. It is a case of the district which has little paying much for what it gets, while the district which has much, pays little for what it gets. Summarizing it all, Delaware County, with a tax-rate of 8 mills, spends \$725 on each school and pays \$77 for the education of each of its pupils, while Monroe County, with a tax-rate of $3\frac{1}{4}$ mills, spends \$987.50 for each of its schools and pays \$49 for the education of each of its pupils. The corresponding figures for Tompkins County are \$787.50 and \$74, respectively.

These three supervisory districts are typical of common school districts generally throughout the state. The median equalized tax-rate for 1070 districts and 24 supervisory districts is 5.44 mills for common school districts; the median for 79 union free school districts scattered throughout 24 supervisory districts is 8.94; for 59 cities scattered throughout the state, 8.29 mills; for 45 villages scattered throughout the state the median tax-rate is 7.86 mills. The 59 cities and 45 villages include practically all the villages and cities of the state.

When we compare the various classes of school districts with regard to their tax-rates we find that the tax-rates of common school districts, taken as a whole, are lower than the tax-rates of any other class of districts. Aside from these common school districts, we find that the more dense the population, the lower the tax-rates. However, it is important to note that although the median tax-rates of the common school districts is the lowest of all, the highest tax-rates of individual districts are found likewise in the common school districts scattered through the state. There are common school districts which bear excessive burdens of taxation. There are probably over 300 common school districts which have higher tax-rates than the highest taxed city; on the other hand, there are over 500 districts which have lower tax-rates than the lowest cities.

Thus it is seen that two very common beliefs regarding tax-rates in rural schools are untrue. First, tax-rates in common school districts are neither low nor high as a class. Plenty of examples are found at both extremes. Second, they cost both less and more.

Hence in common school districts the burdens, as well as the costs, are both more and less than in the cities according to the circumstances in the particular districts.

Are these figures to be taken at their face value? Are we to conclude that, because the farmers in the common school districts have more limited tax-rates imposed upon them as a class than the dwellers in cities as a class they are less heavily burdened? There are certain conditions which indicate the contrary. Practically all the wealth of the farmer is taxed by the taxes on general property, while much of the wealth of the city dweller, by means of which he earns his livelihood, is not reached by such a tax. It is altogether likely that if we could formulate a method by which to compare the true ability of the citizens in these two classes of communities to pay taxes, that would find the farmer at a disadvantage as compared with the city man, which seems to be the case when we consider general property tax alone. Unfortunately, no such method of determining this question has been generally accepted. The receipts from the personal income tax in the state of New York go to indicate, however, that the city dweller makes much more money in proportion to his real estate holdings than does the farmer. These facts are of weight in the consideration of distribution of state school funds.

SUMMARY.—It was noted in considering school costs that the common school districts in which the cost for schools was highest per unit of product were those in which there was the smallest average daily attendance. It is equally important to ascertain the relationship between the true tax-rates and the average daily attendance. A study of this phase for the counties of Delaware, Tompkins, and Monroe showed plainly that for the year 1920 the districts having the highest rates of taxation have the lowest attendance. The median equalized tax-rates for the schools of varying average daily attendance were as follows:

Average Daily Attendance	Tax-Rate
1- 5.....	7.0
6-10.....	5.9
11-15.....	5.4
16-20.....	4.2
21-25.....	3.8

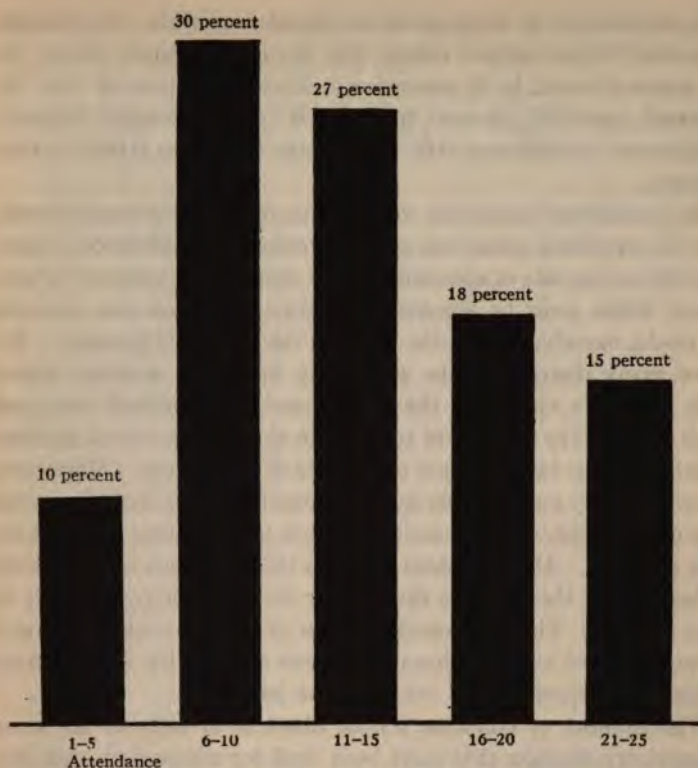


Diagram 21.—Percent of schools by average daily attendance for Tompkins, Monroe, and Delaware Counties

PROPERTY VALUATIONS

It was said at the beginning of the last section that the tax burden, as represented in the state, is dependent upon two factors when state aid does not enter into consideration: namely, costs of schools and the valuation of the property taxable for school purposes. We have analyzed in both the tax-rates and the costs—it now remains for us to give some attention to the property valuations.

In New York local support of schools comes from a tax upon general property, but the amount of personal property reported to

the assessors is so small as to be almost negligible. Practically, therefore, school support comes from tax on real estate alone. In 41 towns situated in 24 supervisory districts the percent that the assessed value of personal property is of the assessed value of real estate in 1919 was 0.01—the range was from 0.0002 to 0.08 percent.

In considering valuations we shall, for reasons previously stated, use the equalized valuations so as to remove the differences caused by the varying rate of assessment. But there is still another varying factor which must be eliminated before comparison can properly be made, namely, that of the varying size of school systems. We have many districts in the state that have but a single school unit. Certain cities, on the other hand, have several thousand such units. The number of teachers in the various school districts is taken as the best measure of the size of the system. Since costs of schools vary more closely as to the number of teachers than with any other factor, we have another reason for accepting this unit for this purpose. All valuations given in this represent the equalized valuations of the districts divided by the number of teachers in that district. Thus the varying factor of the size of the districts is eliminated and all are reduced to a basis upon which their relative ability to support schools can freely be judged.

The number of common school districts in each of the same supervisory districts that have been used for comparison thus far, having true valuations of varying amounts, is given in Table 38.

The same wide spread in each of the supervisory districts, and the same differences in general trend of valuations as were apparent both in our study of costs and of tax-rates, are plainly seen. It will be noted that in Delaware County there is one district that has an equalized valuation per teacher approximately 34 times as great as four others. In Tompkins County there are three districts whose true valuations are about one-twelfth that of the wealthiest districts. Even greater differences than these have been found in other supervisory districts. In Erie County there is one district which has a valuation over 60 times as much as any other district. In Clinton County the highest valuation of one district is over 70 times that of the lowest. In the general trend of valuations Dela-

TABLE 38.—EQUALIZED VALUATION PER TEACHER FOR THE FIRST SUPERVISORY DISTRICTS OF DELAWARE, MONROE, AND TOMPKINS COUNTIES. YEAR ENDING JULY 31, 1920 (COMMON SCHOOLS)

Equalized Valuation per Teacher	Delaware No. 1	Monroe No. 1	Tompkins No. 1	Total
\$0,000- \$9,999
10,000- 19,999	4	4
20,000- 29,999	3	3
30,000- 39,999	8	..	2	10
40,000- 49,999	9	..	2	11
50,000- 59,999	4	..	6	10
60,000- 69,999	6	..	4	10
70,000- 79,999	4	..	3	7
80,000- 89,999	1	..	1	2
90,000- 99,999	1	..	2	3
100,000-109,999	4	1	2	7
110,000-119,999	..	1	2	3
120,000-129,999	2	..	1	3
130,000-139,999	1	1
140,000-149,999	3	..	1	4
150,000-159,999	1	1
160,000-169,999	1	1	..	2
170,000-179,999	..	1	3	4
180,000-189,999	1	1	..	2
190,000-199,999	..	2	..	2
200,000-209,999	..	2	..	2
210,000-219,999	..	3	..	3
220,000-229,999
230,000-239,999
240,000-249,999	..	2	..	2
250,000-259,999	..	3	1	4
260,000-269,999	..	1	..	1
270,000-279,999
280,000-289,999	..	1	..	1
290,000-299,999	..	1	..	1
300,000-309,999
310,000-319,999
320,000-329,999	..	1	..	1
330,000-339,999	..	2	..	2
340,000-349,999	1	1	..	2
350,000-359,999
360,000-369,999	..	3	..	3
370,000-379,999	..	1	..	1
380,000-389,999
390,000-399,999
400,000-499,999	..	3	..	3
500,000-599,999	..	3	..	3
600,000-699,999	..	2	..	2
700,000-799,999
800,000-899,999	..	1	..	1
Over 899,999	..	2	..	2
Total.....	51	39	33	123
Medians.....	60,833	295,000	68,750	102,145

ware and Monroe Counties are again situated at the extremes, with Tompkins in the middle. The low valuations of Delaware County are, of course, closely associated with the high tax-rates, as are the high valuations of Monroe associated with the low tax-rates. It will be recalled that in Delaware County the costs per teacher were low, and that in Monroe the costs per teacher high. These facts appear to reduce the tax-rates in Delaware and increase the tax-rates in Monroe County. But the difference in the wealth of these counties is so great that the operation of this factor is obscured. Monroe County is so rich it can afford to have the very best teachers and still have a lower tax burden than Delaware County. Thus we see in what an advantageous position it is as compared with Delaware, for Monroe County has so many pupils in each of its schools that, notwithstanding its high costs per teacher, it has lower costs per unit of product than has Delaware County with its low costs per teacher.

The contrast between the supervisory districts in these two counties is typical of many that may be found among the rural schools of the state of New York. There are certain sections of rural New York that have high valuations, low tax-rates, high teacher costs, and low pupil costs; while there are others, as unfortunate as these are fortunate, that have low valuations, high tax-rates, low teacher costs, high pupil costs.

It is important that before we leave this subject we again inquire into the relationship between attendance in the various schools and the topic under consideration. In order to do this the school districts have first been classified as to equalized valuations per teacher. The median average daily attendance for each of the medians of equalized valuations was then ascertained. This showed that the districts with the lowest valuation had the lowest average daily attendance. The following is a summary of the computation:

Equalized Valuation	Median Average Daily Attendance
\$49,400.....	1- 5
78,700.....	6-10
112,500.....	11-15
162,700.....	16-20
236,000.....	21-25

It will be seen from this table that it is the districts with low valuations that have the lowest average daily attendance.

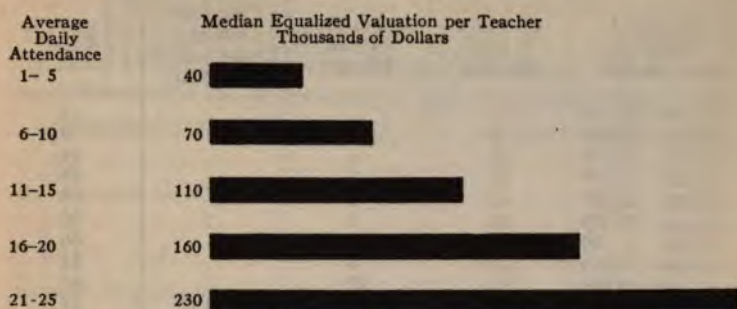


Diagram 22.—Relationship between average daily attendance per teacher and equalized valuations per teacher in common school districts in Delaware, Monroe, and Tompkins, for the year ending July 31, 1920

It remains to make comparison between the equalized valuation per teacher in common school districts and in the other classes of districts—the union free, the villages under superintendents, and the cities. For this comparison 1012 common school districts in various parts of the state were used. Table 39 gives full information upon this point.

This table shows the same relationship of common school districts to the others as was found in similar tables for cost per pupil and equalized tax-rates. On the whole, cities have the highest valuations, villages next, union free districts next, and common school districts least. Nevertheless, there are certain common school districts that have higher valuations per teacher than the highest union free school district, and as high as any city or village. Likewise certain others have lower valuations than any city or union free school district.¹

¹ In regard to the reliability of the data for common school districts, it should be said that the equalized valuations of the districts in which were situated the one-teacher schools scored by Dr. Butterworth in his study of school buildings, the median value was \$92,000, while the median value of two-teacher schools was \$270,000, and of the two-teacher and one-teacher combined, approximately \$96,000. It is, therefore, probable that the equalized valuation per teacher of the common school districts is not far from \$100,000.

TABLE 39.—EQUALIZED VALUATION PER TEACHER FOR COMMON SCHOOL AND UNION FREE SCHOOL DISTRICTS AND CITIES AND VILLAGES UNDER SUPERINTENDENTS. YEAR ENDING JULY 31, 1920

Equalized Valuation per Teacher	Common School District	Union Free School District	Cities and Villages Under Super- intendents	Total
\$0,000- \$9,999	2	2
10,000- 19,999	9	9
20,000- 29,999	24	24
30,000- 39,999	50	1	..	51
40,000- 49,999	67	1	..	68
50,000- 59,999	68	2	..	70
60,000- 69,999	64	2	..	66
70,000- 79,999	78	4	..	82
80,000- 89,999	51	12	..	63
90,000- 99,999	47	9	1	57
100,000-109,999	57	11	3	71
110,000-119,999	38	3	5	46
120,000-129,999	44	7	5	56
130,000-139,999	34	7	5	46
140,000-149,999	38	1	5	44
150,000-159,999	24	2	13	39
160,000-169,999	29	2	4	35
170,000-179,999	32	1	9	42
180,000-189,999	16	1	7	24
190,000-199,999	11	3	2	16
200,000-209,999	19	1	5	25
210,000-219,999	9	..	1	10
220,000-229,999	11	1	5	17
230,000-239,999	18	2	3	23
240,000-249,999	16	1	4	21
250,000-259,999	16	..	4	20
260,000-269,999	10	..	3	13
270,000-279,999	7	1	2	10
280,000-289,999	9	..	1	10
290,000-299,999	9	1	2	12
300,000-309,999	5	5
310,000-319,999	5	5
320,000-329,999	8	1	5	14
330,000-339,999	9	..	1	10
340,000-349,999	8	..	1	9
350,000-359,999	1	2	..	3
360,000-369,999	8	8
370,000-379,999	3	3
380,000-389,999	2	..	2	4
390,000-399,999	3	..	1	4
400,000-499,999	22	..	2	24
500,000-599,999	10	10
600,000-699,999	9	9
700,000-799,999	3	..	1	4
800,000-899,999	4	..	1	5
Over 899,999	5	..	1	6
Total	1012	79	104	1195
Medians	108,070	107,727	182,857	117,500

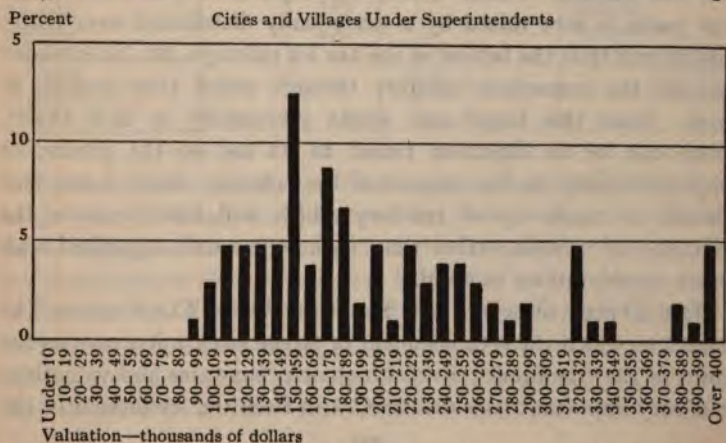
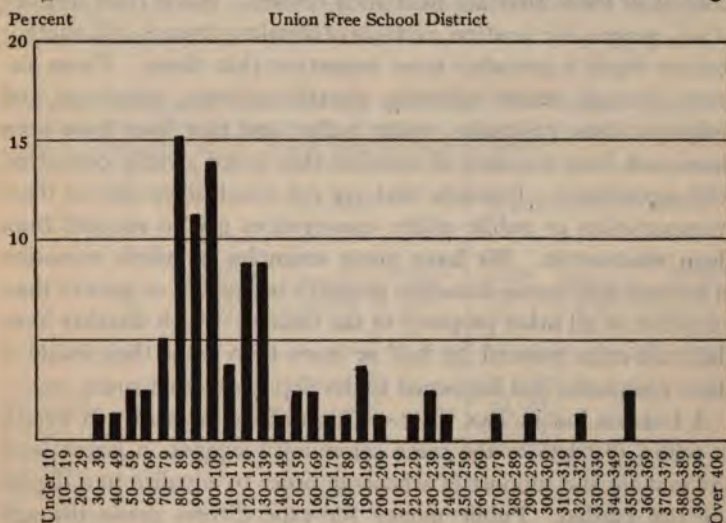
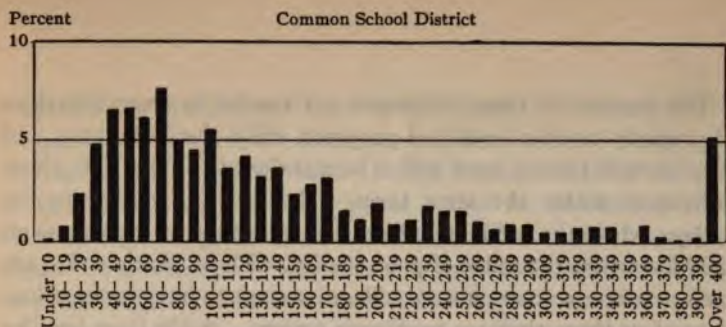


Diagram 23.—Percent of schools by equalized valuation per teacher for common school districts and union free school districts and cities and villages under superintendents, for the year ending July 31, 1920

The reasons for these differences per teacher in true valuations of property taxable for school purposes, while there are many and they are well known, need still to be mentioned. Take, first, those differences within the same town. The districts located in the valleys, where the soil is rich, have higher valuations than those on the hills, where the soil is of poor quality. Those districts that are farther removed from cities or villages are apt to have lower valuations than those that are near such centers. Aside from fertility of soil, geographic location, and size of districts, there is still another feature which is probably more important than these. Those districts through which railroads, electric railways, telephone and telegraph lines, gas-mains, water mains, and pipe lines have been developed, have a source of taxation that is not strictly connected with agriculture. Districts that are not touched by any of these transportation or public utility conveyances get no support from them whatsoever. We have many examples in which valuation of railway and special franchise property is equal to or greater than valuation of all other property in the district. Such districts have their tax-rates reduced by half or more than what they would if these companies had happened to develop some other route.

A LARGER LOCAL TAX UNIT.—This striking inequality in wealth in school districts in the same community suggests a larger local tax unit for the support of schools in order to equalize to a degree the tax burden. Public money for expenditures made through the towns is now raised by a tax equally distributed over entire towns, and thus the benefit of the tax for railways, etc., is extended beyond the immediate territory through which they happen to pass. Since this larger unit works successfully in civil affairs, there can be no objection raised to its use on the ground of impracticability for the support of the schools. Such a tax unit should be made up of territory which will best promote the efficiency of schools, rather than to accept a unit organized with other considerations in mind.

THE EFFECT OF A LARGER TAX UNIT UPON TAX-RATES.—The extent to which the establishment of larger local units, such as the town or the community district, equalizes tax-rates and valuations is a very important consideration, both from the standpoint of the

people paying the taxes and from the standpoint of state aid. The property-holders of certain districts would have to pay a higher rate of tax and others would have to pay a lower rate. The town or the community district tax-rate would be an average tax. Generally speaking, the wealthier districts would have to pay a higher tax and the poorer districts a lower tax. Thus there would be equalization of taxes between the districts in the various units. But there would still remain great differences in tax-rates among the various units, as is shown in Table 40.

TABLE 40.—EQUALIZED TAX-RATE AND EQUALIZED VALUATION PER TEACHER IN THE FOLLOWING SUPERVISORY DISTRICTS: DELAWARE No. 1, MONROE No. 1, TOMPKINS No. 1. YEAR ENDING JULY 31, 1920

	Tax-Rate			Equalization Valuation		
	Delaware No. 1	Monroe No. 1	Tompkins No. 1	Delaware No. 1	Monroe No. 1	Tompkins No. 1
Deposit.....	8.35	\$81,525
Masonville.....	11.50	52,253
Sidney.....	14.72	135,030
Tompkins.....	12.28	61,092
Brighton.....	..	2.22	\$763,898	..
Henrietta.....	..	3.05	310,390	..
Irondequoit.....	..	4.45	375,650	..
Penfield.....	..	3.92	224,099	..
Webster.....	..	3.39	316,658	..
Enfield.....	6.70	\$75,985
Newfield.....	11.34	53,585
Ulysses.....	5.98	177,215

This table gives the equalized tax-rates as they would have been in the year 1919 had the town been the taxing unit, and had each town maintained the same schools at the same expense as the districts maintained them in the year 1919-20.

Tax-rates in Monroe County are low, while those in Tompkins and Delaware Counties are high. These differences would, of course, prevail among all the towns in the state, and what has been said in previous sections regarding the differences in tax burden

among school districts applies to the situation as it would exist in the towns, although, to be sure, the extreme differences would be eliminated under a town taxing unit.

The effect upon valuations per teacher of the establishment of a larger taxing unit, such as the town, is similar to the effect upon the tax-rates. The equalized valuation per teacher in the town is practically the average of the equalized valuation of the various districts, in which each district is weighted according to the number of teachers, but, as is revealed in Table 40, large differences in the amount of wealth behind each teacher in the various towns still remain in spite of the fact that the extreme differences found in the common school districts have been eliminated. From the standpoint of state aid the data in this table prove that the equalization in school support furnished by the larger local tax unit is not sufficient to meet the needs of schools.

STATE AID

WHY HAVE STATE AID?—We have found it necessary to create states in order to secure protection, liberty, justice, and to promote individual welfare, but at the same time we have seen to it that a very large measure of control has been given back by these states to the local communities in order that each individual may have the largest practicable control of those governmental affairs with which he comes in immediate contact. Control of the tax-rate and of the expenditure of money raised in local communities is one of the most essential features of our democracy and is highly prized by all American citizens.

We must expect, therefore, as a principle of the financial administration of schools, that local support shall be fundamental in any system that may be established. It does not follow, however, that school support should be entirely local. There are certain reasons why it should not be so. It has been shown repeatedly in this study that there are great differences in the ability of various districts to support schools, and that it is difficult for many of them to maintain schools of even poor quality. It has also been shown that there are great differences among different communities in their conceptions of a proper standard of school for an American

community. Some communities seem to realize that the future of our nation depends very largely on the character of education given in the schools, and that the future happiness and success in life of their children are likewise largely dependent upon the kind of schooling they have. While, on the other hand, there are other communities, many of which are well-to-do, that seem to look upon the school not as an opportunity for them to serve their country and to promote the welfare of their children, but rather as a burdensome thing which has been imposed upon them from without; or, if they do accept the school as a worthy institution, their standards of what a good school should be are so low that the interests of the state as a whole, the well-being of the particular community in which the school is situated, and the future happiness of the children living within it are each and all affected in a harmful manner.

Under such circumstances as these, when districts are unable to support schools, or, if able, are not willing to support schools of a quality corresponding to their wealth, the question arises whether the state government representing all the people cannot and should not do something to improve the conditions in such districts. In case of invasion by foreign troops or in case of mob violence which cannot be controlled by the local authorities all would say that state money should be spent in restoring peace and order, not only that the communities in question might be benefited, but also to insure the future well-being of the remainder of the state. While the effects of a poor school upon a particular community and upon the portions of the state lying outside of it are not so apparent or so immediate as those of an invasion or mob, nevertheless the harm is just as certain and expenditure of state funds is as fully warranted in this case as in the former. It is also true that if state money can be used to stamp out an epidemic of tuberculosis or hog cholera, it can likewise be used to prevent inferior teaching.

Furthermore, the advancement of the general welfare through the expenditure of state money has been just as generally recognized as the maintenance of peace and order and protection from disease. State money is spent to promote state fairs, experiments in agriculture, and extension courses in a variety of subjects relating to

farming. Through such expenditures as these the standards as to what constitutes good farming are constantly rising, and not only the farmers, but all who consume the products of the farm are benefited thereby. It pays the people of all the state to stimulate farmers, by the giving of instruction, to obtain the most and the best from the land they possess. It pays also to grant rewards to those farmers and to those boys and girls of the farm who have done particularly meritorious work. The benefits that come from this sort of reward and the stimulation to all people of the state are much greater than the cost.

It is the same in education as in farming. The state should always do something to stimulate every school district to do its best. It also ought to grant rewards to school districts, teachers, and pupils who do a particularly meritorious thing. The benefits that will come to the entire state, not to mention those that will come to the particular districts, are much greater than the costs.

OBJECTS OF STATE AID.—State aid should then be administered in such a way as to make good schools possible in all communities of the state, so that no community would have a reasonable excuse for a poor school. It ought also to stimulate every school district in the state to have better schools, thereby constantly raising the standard of education and promoting the continual progress of the life of all the people in the state. It also ought to reward any school that takes a new step in an efficient manner because of the meritorious performance that such a step indicates. It should do all these things, not only to protect the state from ignorance in the exercise of the ballot and to provide leaders, but also for the further just as important purpose, to promote in every possible way the individual welfare of every person in it, which, applied to schools, means that all these forms of aid should be utilized so as to guarantee for each child that education which is best to fit him for life, irrespective of the particular community in which he may happen to live. It is upon such grounds as this that the state is justified in taking, through taxation, a citizen's money and expending it in places other than that in which he resides. It is done because the state as a whole and in most cases he himself will benefit from it far more than what it costs.

PROPORTION OF SUPPORT THAT SHOULD COME FROM THE STATE.

—Just what proportion of local support should be furnished by the state is dependent upon a number of factors, among which are the equalities of wealth among the various local districts and the differences among the people in their interests in schools. The sources of taxation that are utilized by state and local governments is also a factor. Standards in these particulars have not as yet been worked out and generally accepted. It is clear, however, that in a state such as New York, where local school taxes come almost entirely from the taxation of real estate and large amounts of money come to the state from business, income, and inheritance taxes, and where there are such great inequalities in wealth and differences in interest in schools, the state should properly give large amounts of money to the support of local schools.

METHODS OF ADMINISTRATION OF STATE AID.—When we turn to the consideration of the methods by which the state money shall be distributed among the schools of the state, we find that there are certain controlling principles, one of which is the preservation and promotion of a democratic form of government. State aid should be distributed in such a way as to promote the efficient participation of citizens in the exercise of citizenship.

The converse of this proposition is that it should not be so administered as to promote bureaucracy or autocratic control in either state, county, or local education offices. This can be accomplished if, on the one hand, the withholding of funds by state officers is exercised only in proportion to the seriousness of the shortcoming; and if, on the other hand, right action unfailingly meets its reward. The facts are that, in a fairly large number of the communities of every state, we need a change in attitude on the part of the citizens toward the schools. These communities can be frequently led to change their vote, to substitute right action for wrong action over a sufficiently long period of years, and to bring about a fundamental change in their attitudes toward the benefits of education. That which a citizen learns through the operation of his own action becomes firmly established, while that which is forced upon him against his will he opposes more firmly. It is, therefore, fundamental in state aid that we leave final deci-

sion to the local community, and leave them to choose what is best. In the doing of this we will have a stronger agency in the making of a better government and a better society.

Such a plan encourages not only the most advanced districts and so keeps the entire body moving, but also constantly stimulates those districts that are lagging behind to come up to the state-wide standards that have already been adopted through what was learned from the experience of the more progressive districts.

PRINCIPLES GOVERNING STATE AID.—In the light of this treatment we are able to arrive at certain fundamental principles relating to state aid as follows:

1. Local support is fundamental.
2. The local units for the support of schools should contain, in so far as practicable, enough property taxable for school purposes to raise that portion of the expenses of the school which it is believed should be borne by the local districts without an undue burden upon the owners of property.
3. Some portion of the support of local schools should come from the state government, the amount being dependent upon certain factors, exact standards for which have not been scientifically determined.
4. The administration of state aid should be such as to increase the efficient participation of citizens in a democratic form of government.
5. The purposes of state aid should be not only to protect the state from ignorance, to provide intelligent workers in every field of activity, and to educate leaders, but also to guarantee to each child, irrespective of where he happens to live, equal opportunity to that of any other child for that education which will best fit him for life.

CRITERIA APPLICABLE TO STATE AID.—The following points will furnish criteria on which the efficiency of certain forms of state aid may be based. That form which satisfies the largest number of these principles is better than any other which satisfies only portions of them.

1. A portion or all of the state money should be withheld from any local district whenever it is clearly established that those minimum

standards established by the legislature regarding schools are not fully met. The proportion withheld should be dependent upon the extent of the shortcoming and the number of previous delinquencies.

2. The state should encourage by grants the introduction of new features into the schools of the state, especially those which would not ordinarily be undertaken by many communities of their own volition.

3. Local communities should, by the assistance of state aid, be constantly stimulated to raise the standard of their schools as regards the qualifications of teachers employed, courses of study taught, and equipment furnished, and every other feature that goes to make up a good school. The purpose of this principle is to encourage the districts to raise themselves higher and higher above the minimum standards.

4. The state should, in the distribution of money among the various districts, seek to equalize the tax burdens of various districts in the support of schools in order that the equalization of educational opportunity among all of the children of the state can be the more easily secured. The points in the scale of equalized valuations per teacher to which this equalization should be carried is to be determined, upon the one hand, by the amounts of money available, and, on the other hand, by the compelling necessity of preserving and stimulating democratic control of schools in local communities.

PRESENT SYSTEM OF STATE AID IN NEW YORK.—The present system of state aid for the support of schools in the state of New York is divisible into eight parts: (1) District Quotas; (2) Teacher Quotas; (3) Additional Teacher Quotas; (4) Vocational Teacher Quotas; (5) Physical Training Teacher Quotas; (6) Library and Equipment Quotas; (7) High School Tuition Quotas, and (8) Academic Quotas.

Each of these forms of state aid need not be judged separately in the light of the "Principles for Criteria" given above.

(1) and (2) The first two forms of aid—the *district quotas* and the *teacher quotas*—may be taken together, since they constitute the only form of state aid applicable to all districts until the passage

of the Additional District Quota Law in 1920. The district quotas were as follows:

Assessed Valuation	State Aid
Less than \$20,000.....	\$200
\$20,001-40,000.....	175
40,001-60,000.....	150
Over 60,000.....	125

To those districts that have more than one teacher \$100 was given for each of them; thus it is known as the teacher quota.

TABLE 41.—CORRELATION BETWEEN AMOUNT OF STATE AID ON BASIS OF ASSESSED VALUATION AND EQUALIZED MILLAGE PER TEACHER, DELAWARE NO. 1, MONROE NO. 1, TOMPKINS NO. 1, YEAR ENDING JULY 31, 1920

Amount of State Aid	Equalized Rate in Mills											
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
\$200	1	..	3	1	2	4	3
175	2	..	4	4	3	3	3	1	2
150	1	1	3	5	2	1	1	3	..	1
125	2	5	11	15	10	9	5	3	1
Total.....	2	5	12	18	13	19	11	10	6	8	5	6

Amount of State Aid	12	13	14	16	17	19	20	24	30	32	33	Totals	Medians
\$200	1	1	1	1	1	1	20	\$10.75
175	2	2	1	..	4	1	32	9.00
150	18	5.80
125	61	3.83
Total..	2	2	1	1	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	131	\$5.81

Applying the four criteria to the scheme of state aid we find that it satisfies only the first criterion, and that but imperfectly, because it doesn't permit of the withholding of a part of the state

grants—all must be withheld or none. It does not reward a district—a district receives its share, no matter what it does with the money, no matter whether or not it spends its money wisely. That it does not stimulate additional effort and that it does not take into account to any great degree the ability of the district to support a good school are shown by the great variation in true tax-rates among the various districts as brought out in Table 41.

It would have been better had the amounts been based upon equalized valuations because of the variations in assessment rates, but as it is, it places a premium upon low valuations of taxable property which is generally recognized it is desirable to discourage. The same wide variation in true tax-rates is also evident by a similar table based upon equalized valuations.

(3) Since 1920 the districts of the state have received, in addition to the district and teacher quotas given above, the following much larger quotas for each teacher:

First-class cities (New York, Buffalo, Rochester).....	\$600
Second-class cities.....	550
Other cities of 50,000 or more.....	450
Cities of less than 50,000 and villages under superintendents.....	350
Other union free school districts.....	350
Other schools employing more than one teacher.....	300
Each school district employing one teacher, having assessed valuation exceeding \$100,000.....	200
Other school districts employing one teacher and assessed valuation of \$100,000 or less receive \$200 plus \$3 for each \$1000 valuation less than \$100,000.	

We are interested primarily in the effect of this law upon the last three classes of districts. It fails to satisfy the first three of the criteria to the same extent as the previous law, and for the same reasons. It is, however, an improvement, since it partially satisfies the fourth criterion. Since the first distribution under this law did not occur until the present year, we have, in order to compare the effects of the two laws, worked out the tax-rates that it would be necessary to raise under each plan in districts of different valuations in order to meet an assumed annual cost of \$900. These data are brought together in Table 42.

TABLE 42.—AMOUNTS ONE-TEACHER DISTRICTS OF VARYING VALUATIONS WOULD HAVE TO RAISE BY LOCAL TAX, AND THE TAX-RATES UNDER STATE AID IN 1920 AND 1921, ASSUMING COST TO BE \$900 PER TEACHER

Valuation	State Aid		Local Tax		Tax-Rate	
	1920	1921	1920	1921	1920	1921
\$10,000	\$200	\$670	\$700	\$230	\$0.0700	\$0.0230
20,000	200	640	700	260	0.0350	0.0130
30,000	175	585	724	315	0.0241	0.0105
40,000	175	555	725	345	0.0181	0.0086
50,000	150	500	730	400	0.0150	0.0080
60,000	150	470	750	430	0.0125	0.0072
70,000	125	415	775	485	0.0110	0.0069
80,000	125	385	775	515	0.0096	0.0064
90,000	125	355	775	545	0.0086	0.0061
100,000	125	325	775	575	0.0077	0.0058
110,000	125	325	775	575	0.0070	0.0052
120,000	125	325	775	575	0.0064	0.0048
130,000	125	325	775	575	0.0059	0.0044
140,000	125	325	775	575	0.0055	0.0041
150,000	125	325	775	575	0.0051	0.0038
160,000	125	325	775	575	0.0048	0.0035
170,000	125	325	775	575	0.0045	0.0033
180,000	125	325	775	575	0.0043	0.0031
190,000	125	325	775	575	0.0040	0.0030
200,000	125	325	775	575	0.0038	0.0028

Table 42 shows that districts of the lowest valuations receive the largest grants from the state and that for districts of less than \$100,000 valuation the amount increased regularly and inversely with the wealth of the districts. The shortcomings in the law are as follows:

- (a) It is still necessary for districts of lower valuation to pay high taxes, while districts of higher valuation can conduct the same schools with the same degree of excellence at much lower tax-rates, although the differences are not so large as they were previously. The principle of equalization of the tax burden—the fourth criterion—is not carried far enough. Equalization of educational opportunities through equalization of support—the fourth criterion—is not promoted to the degree it should be.

- (b) The law does not take into account the differences among the various districts in the amount of money that each chooses to put into its schools. In other words, the third criterion is not observed at all. Taking two school districts of the same valuation, the one with the cheap teacher, poorly equipped school gets as much as the school which employs an excellent teacher and has superior equipment. Take, for example, two common school districts each having a valuation of \$50,000 and each receiving \$400 from the state: assume one of the three employs a teacher at \$20 per week and keeps its school costs close to \$800, while the other employs a teacher at \$25 per week, continues its school for forty weeks, and has costs amounting to \$1100 or more. If the number of pupils in these two schools is the same and other conditions influencing education similar, the second school is worthy of greater recognition because it has done more for the state than has the first.

The present law, in denying such recognition, creates an unfortunate attitude of mind in the people of the rural districts that seriously interferes with school progress. Knowing that nothing they may do except the keeping down of the rate of assessment will influence the amount of money they will receive from the state, provided they maintain the minimum standards they plan to get on with as little as they can and so impair the efficiency of the school. Another unfortunate effect is that they look upon the state money as something they are rightfully entitled to, irrespective of what they do with the school, and fail to see that the state rightfully expects something of them in return beyond the maintenance of minimum standards.

The practical effect of the fixed kind of state aid is to make state support basal, since each board of education knows for certain what is coming from the state and superimposes its local tax upon it in sufficient amount to raise the funds desired. This violates the first principle relating to support of schools. Local support should be basal and state support should be dependent upon the local tax rather than the local tax upon state aid.

(4 and 5) *The Physical Training and Vocational Teacher Quotas.*

—The survey has not studied intensively the operation of these quotas. They satisfy in principle criterion No. 2. Since equalization of educational burden is largely secured through a revised form of general aid, it is recommended that these quotas be retained in their present form.

(6) *Library and Equipment Quotas.*—The form of state support second in importance to the rural schools is the library and equipment quota, in which case the state pays an amount equal to that raised in the districts. The principle back of this form of grant is to be commended in that it stimulates local districts to do their best. Its weakness lies in the fact that it takes no account of the varying capacity of districts to raise money for these purposes. Since the amounts of money required are not large, this objection is not of great force. It should be retained in its present form, but a larger appropriation, amounting to at least \$250,000 per year, granted in order to meet the demands upon it. At present full returns cannot be allowed because of limited funds.

(7) *High School Tuition.*—The \$50 per year paid by the state for tuition in high school for non-resident students has no place in a rational system of school support, although it is intended to achieve a worthy aim and doubtless has been of great benefit to a large number, although by no means to all the young people of the state residing in rural districts. It is recommended by the committee that every child residing in a district not having a high school who has satisfactorily completed the elementary schools shall be given the right to attend any standard high school in the state that he chooses, within certain reasonable limitations, and to have his tuition paid by his local district, this district including the charge as part of its other expenses, which should be reimbursed by the state for such share as its true valuation per teacher and its tax-rate entitles it under the plan to be outlined hereafter. The amounts of tuition charged by high schools should be as large as the cost per pupil for the previous year, as determined in accordance with the rules of the State Department.

(8) *Academic Quotas.*—The academic quotas granted to high schools have in the past served as a reward for the establishment

of new departments or extension of old departments in local schools (criterion No. 2). They might well serve that purpose still in small villages, where people hesitate to establish high schools, but the value of this form of state aid in cities and larger villages has passed. The fact that the grant has been in the same amount, irrespective of the ability of the district to pay it or of the amount of money that they are putting into high schools, has acted as a limitation upon its highest efficiency. The survey recommends that this form of state aid be dropped and that, instead, there be granted to union free school and common school districts aid for high schools in proportion to the number of teachers employed and as supplementary to the more fundamental form of state aid which takes into account true valuation and amount of money spent, as will be outlined below.

UNFORTUNATE OMISSIONS IN THE SYSTEM OF STATE AID.—State aid, as it exists at present in New York, has not encouraged as it should in the rural schools the consolidation of districts, the erection of schoolhouses, or high school education among the pupils who have completed the elementary schools. On the contrary, as it now stands it works against the consolidation of districts into larger units. This and other weaknesses in the present system of school support should be avoided in any new system that may be adopted.

The plan for state support offered by the committee is proposed for rural and village schools only, although its principles might be extended to all districts. It consists of two main divisions: (A) General Aid; (B) Various Forms of Special Aid. A system of general aid is proposed which operates constantly in such a manner as to satisfy all the principles mentioned above, and the first, third, and fourth criteria. Forms of special aid are offered in addition to those now existing that were recommended above for retention to supplement the general aid and to satisfy the second criterion.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1.(A) GENERAL AID.—The system of state aid herein proposed involves two fundamental elements which must be established before the formula for determining aid to be given each district can be worked out. First, the equalized valuation up to the level

of which the state is willing to do its part in bringing all districts that are below that level. This may be called the Base for the Equalization of the Tax Burden. Different points can be chosen for this base, but in the judgment of the survey it should be at or near the mean or median equalized valuation of all the school units of the state, assuming each teacher constitutes a school unit. The survey has found this median equalized valuation to be slightly over \$290,000. The second fundamental element is the amount it costs to conduct an elementary school unit, such as is represented by one teacher. This may be placed at any point desired. The average cost per teacher of elementary schools in 1920 of towns and villages throughout the entire state was \$1054. This amount will undoubtedly be increased as the standards of instruction and of operation and maintenance are increased, and the state might properly recognize either this median or a higher standard as the norm, as, for example, \$1200. These two elements can be used to work out what may be called a distribution coefficient, which, when combined with the other three factors, will give such amounts for every school district as will satisfy the three criteria given above. The method of determining this coefficient will be presented in the volume dealing with the complete discussion of school support.

The plan of general aid is divisible into two parts: first, for districts having equalized valuations below the base for the equalization of the tax burden (this part is particularly applicable to the rural schools of the state) and, second, for districts having valuations above this amount. The amount of state support for any district included in the first part of the plan is determined by multiplying together the four factors:

- (a) The deficit in equalized valuations (expressed in thousands).
- (b) Equalized tax-rate of the district (expressed as number of mills).
- (c) Number of teachers.
- (d) The distribution coefficient (expressed in terms of money).

For the distribution of general state aid for those districts below the median equalized valuation per teacher, *i. e.*, \$290,000, it is recommended that these factors be combined in the formula $(290,000 - V) M \times T \times .626$, and that this

formula be adopted for districts below the median valuation. (In this formula V stands for equalized valuation expressed in thousands of dollars, M for the tax-rate in mills, T for the number of teachers in the unit, and .626 for the distribution coefficient.) In the application of this formula every community with a valuation under the median shall receive at least \$48 per teacher. In the application of this formula the maximum amount of general aid to be granted by the state shall not exceed the amount obtained when the number of mills reaches ten.

In districts above the median equalized valuation the following grants shall be made:

EQUALIZED VALUATION
PER TEACHER

Less than \$300,000.....	\$48
\$300,000-399,000.....	40
400,000-499,000.....	32
500,000-599,000.....	24
600,000-699,000.....	16
700,000-799,000.....	8

2. No school shall be entitled to the full amount of aid provided for under this plan unless it has an average daily attendance of eight pupils. Any school that falls below this number shall be granted only such proportion of its allotment as its average daily attendance bears to the standard denominator eight. Thus a school with an average daily attendance of five would receive only $\frac{5}{8}$ of the allotment which it would receive had it the full quota of eight. The Board of Education of the intermediate unit should have the authority to waive the application of this rule in those schools which, in its judgment, should, under present circumstances, as regards condition of roads, distance, etc., be retained as separate schools in order to promote the best interests of pupils attending them. This privilege should also apply in cases in which weather conditions, epidemics, etc., interfere with school attendance. All cases of exemption shall be approved by the State Department of Education.

3. While the above plan is basal and covers all types of schools, nevertheless inasmuch as the salaries and other expenses of secondary schools exceed those of elementary schools, it is desirable that

the state should grant districts having teachers of secondary grade an amount for each teacher which would represent this difference in cost. This aid, in the judgment of the committee, should not apply to all districts, but only to those included in the operation of the first part of the plan and such other districts lying just above them in the distribution scale of true valuation as would produce equalization among all districts for the support of the secondary school in the same way as the first part of the plan provides for it in the support of elementary schools. This would include all districts having approximately a valuation of less than \$350,000 per teacher in case \$400 is taken as the difference between the cost of a secondary school unit and an elementary school unit, which amount is recommended by the committee. This additional aid is to be applicable in cases in which a junior high school is established.

4. The community unit shall be the unit of local taxation for school purposes.

5. (B) SPECIAL AID.—Aid should be granted for the erection of schoolhouses and teacherages on the following basis:

DISTRICTS HAVING A VALUATION PER TEACHER OF LESS THAN—								
\$50,000	30	percent	of	cost	of	building	and	equipment
50,000—\$99,000	25	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
100,000—149,000	20	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
150,000—199,000	15	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
200,000—249,000	10	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
250,000—299,000	5	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
300,000—over	0	"	"	"	"	"	"	"

These buildings are to be erected in accordance with plans approved by the State Department of Education.

6. A similar form of aid should be granted to communities for the making of major improvements to buildings, such as would be considered outlays within the rules of the State Department of Education and in amount according to the plan proposed above.

7. In order to assist communities in bearing the expenses of transportation it is recommended that, for each \$1200 of transportation expense, the number of teachers used in determining the amount of aid should be increased by one. If a school had six teachers and

a transportation expense of \$1200, it would be considered as having seven teachers in the multiplication of the four factors used in determining amount of aid, but not in determining the equalized valuation per teacher. In case of an expenditure of less than \$1200, the expense should be prorated in determining the number of teachers.

8. To induce competent teachers to go into the one-teacher schools, a direct grant of \$20 per month should be made to a teacher who teaches in a one-teacher school, and who belongs to either one of the following groups:

- (a) A normal school graduate or equivalent with three years of teaching experience.
- (b) A graduate of one of the rural teacher training departments of the normal school as provided for in the section on preparation of teachers.

9. In order to discourage the appointment of teachers of inferior qualifications it is recommended that a graduated series of deductions from the state aid be devised so that for each teacher of inferior qualifications that is appointed the apportionment will be reduced by \$100, the second time the same teacher is appointed the deduction should be \$200, and so on.

10. It is recommended that the supervisory quota be extended to union free school districts. It should be prorated on the basis of the time devoted by the principal to supervision in his school.

Under this plan the community would be entitled to an elementary teacher's quota for the principal. In addition there would be the extra high school teacher's quota and a supervisory quota to be based on the proportion of time devoted to supervision.

11. It is recommended that there be state aid to the intermediate unit to the extent of two-thirds the salary of the superintendent, and of his assistants up to certain maximum amounts to be fixed by law and by regulation of the State Department of Education.

12. BONDED INDEBTEDNESS.—It is impossible to devise a plan for taking care of the bonded indebtedness that will be perfectly fair to every situation that exists in the state. It seems best, since all the school property within the community unit becomes the property of the community, that the community assume the bonded

indebtedness. The committee believes that, as a means of adjusting the situation, where bonds are outstanding on buildings completed in the last five years, the community unit should receive aid from the state in accordance with the suggested state aid for new buildings.

THE EFFECT OF THE PLAN UPON LOCAL TAX-RATES

In order to test out the financial effects of any new form of local unit and of state support that might be finally decided upon, four competent rural school experts made intensive studies in the three counties—Delaware, Tompkins, and Monroe—with a view to showing how much it would cost to conduct properly organized and equipped schools in each of the various communities, taking into account in each case the peculiar circumstances, as in the case of transportation of pupils that were involved. The sources of school support in each district and town were likewise studied. The computations were carefully made and have since been studied with care. As a result, we are able to present in Table 43 a comparison of the local tax-rates for schools in various community districts under varying conditions as to location of schools and forms of state support. Four different situations are included. All assume the establishment of the community district. The differences in tax-rates in the community district plan and in the present organization of common schools and union free school districts have been discussed. The first column shows what the tax-rate would have been in each community district this year were such a district in actual operation, with the schools situated as they now are, and with the present law relating to state support still in operation.

The second column shows what the tax-rates would have been in each community district this year with the schools as they now are, but with the system of state support proposed above in actual operation in as far as the organization of schools makes it possible. The third and fourth columns, 3a and 3b, assume that community schools with adequate high school building and equipment, proper transportation facilities, and all that goes with a first-class school, should have been established in these community districts,—as many of them in each as circumstances require,—and that the

a transportation expense of \$1200, it would be considered as having seven teachers in the multiplication of the four factors used in determining amount of aid, but not in determining the equalized valuation per teacher. In case of an expenditure of less than \$1200, the expense should be prorated in determining the number of teachers.

8. To induce competent teachers to go into the one-teacher schools, a direct grant of \$20 per month should be made to a teacher who teaches in a one-teacher school, and who belongs to either one of the following groups:

- (a) A normal school graduate or equivalent with three years of teaching experience.
- (b) A graduate of one of the rural teacher training departments of the normal school as provided for in the section on preparation of teachers.

9. In order to discourage the appointment of teachers of inferior qualifications it is recommended that a graduated series of deductions from the state aid be devised so that for each teacher of inferior qualifications that is appointed the apportionment will be reduced by \$100, the second time the same teacher is appointed the deduction should be \$200, and so on.

10. It is recommended that the supervisory quota be extended to union free school districts. It should be prorated on the basis of the time devoted by the principal to supervision in his school.

Under this plan the community would be entitled to an elementary teacher's quota for the principal. In addition there would be the extra high school teacher's quota and a supervisory quota to be based on the proportion of time devoted to supervision.

11. It is recommended that there be state aid to the intermediate unit to the extent of two-thirds the salary of the superintendent, and of his assistants up to certain maximum amounts to be fixed by law and by regulation of the State Department of Education.

12. BONDED INDEBTEDNESS.—It is impossible to devise a plan for taking care of the bonded indebtedness that will be perfectly fair to every situation that exists in the state. It seems best, since all the school property within the community unit becomes the property of the community, that the community assume the bonded

only one-room schools remaining are those that should not be closed as long as conditions remain as they now are. It also assumes that all the features of the proposed new plan of state support are utilized. Column 3a shows the tax-rate for current expenses only, which, according to the plan proposed, must be estimated separately, while column 3b shows the total tax-rate, including the tax-rate for outlays as well.

A study of the table shows the following:

1. That unusually high taxes and also unusually low taxes would still prevail in certain community districts, as is now the case in common and union free school districts with the present system of state aid.

2. That these extremes would be removed with the proposed revised system of state aid.

3. The taxes would be, on the whole, lower than before. This is an advantage, since it would now be possible for such districts to secure better teachers and have more and better equipment without having to pay a tax-rate above the normal.

4. The tax-rate for the current expenses of the community schools would be higher than for the present schools in some districts and lower in others, these differences depending upon the number of pupils per teacher (especially in the high schools), the salaries paid teachers, the length and difficulty of the transportation routes, and the number of old schoolhouses permanently abandoned.

5. The additional tax-rates required for new buildings under the plan of state aid proposed would be small.

6. The average tax for rural schools in the districts presented, picked at random, including the tax for buildings, would be lower than the present tax-rates in the same communities.

Under these conditions citizens of rural communities could not object to the establishment of community schools on the ground of cost if such reorganization of school district and school support as is recommended in this survey were adopted.

On the other hand, the necessity for furnishing so favorable a situation as this in order to induce citizens of rural communities to establish the most efficient type of schools is sufficient warrant for the state offering such liberal inducements, since so far as edu-

cation is concerned, no part of the system can be permitted to lag behind, and since, so far as the interests of democracy are concerned, the right of each local community to act upon such fundamental questions as the tax-rate and the kind of school it shall maintain cannot be taken from it. The removal of insurmountable financial disadvantages and the stimulation of each local community to realize its best through the state government are necessary features of state schools in a democratic form of government.

CONCLUSION

The plan of state support outlined above is very similar to the scheme of state aid already granted to towns under the highway law. It is founded on the general principle that the local support of schools is basal and that the function of state support is to complement and supplement the efforts made by local districts, and that the amounts given should be adjusted to the efforts made, as determined by the property valuations, on the one hand, and the cost of schools, on the other, the combined effect of which appears in the tax-rate. Thus in its operation it will work out almost in the opposite direction from the practice which now commonly prevails, which is, first, to find out how much the state will furnish, and then bring the local taxes up to the point that is necessary to support a local school. The plan proposed above operates to find out, first, how much a local district can reasonably raise, and then the state steps in and gives it the difference between this amount and that which should be provided in order to have an efficient school. It also encourages each and every district to have the best school.

CHAPTER XIV

REACTIONS OF RURAL SCHOOL PATRONS

IT IS essential in a democracy that provision be made for participation in school affairs by the public. In the ordinary conduct of the school this feature is provided through school meetings in which the patrons have an opportunity to make their influence felt directly, or through boards of education that are representative of lay interests. In the organization of the Joint Committee on Rural Schools arrangements were made for representation of both lay and professional interests. The committee, however, did not consider this adequate. It desired more direct contacts with the rural school patrons of the state.

As a means of attaining this end, provision was made for a series of "hearings" in different sections of the state, to which all who were interested in rural schools were invited. In addition, several thousand booklets were sent to rural school patrons throughout the state. To facilitate their distribution, and to encourage group discussions of the suggested questions, they were distributed largely through local granges and the farm and home bureau organizations. A general invitation was extended, also, to those who were not members of any of these bodies, to secure copies of the booklets and to send in their suggestions. As a result of this method of distribution, some of the booklets contain expressions of relatively large groups, but in other instances they give statements of individual opinions only. In most instances the number answering was given in the booklet as requested.

The views expressed on some of the questions have been incorporated in the body of the report. This is true especially in the case of the chapter dealing with the State System of Examinations. In spite of the fact that some of the results have been thus

used, there seemed to be a place for a separate consideration of the more important problems. This chapter has been prepared for that reason.

CHOICE OF DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS

In the booklet an expression of opinion was asked regarding the method of selection of district superintendents of schools. In 4467 replies to this question, 65 percent were in favor of popular election, 31 percent desired the retention of the present system, and various methods of choice differing from these two were suggested by 4 percent. The idea of choice by popular election was brought forward at many of the meetings held by the committee. That this idea is rather prevalent is shown by the frequency with which resolutions favoring it are passed by such organizations as the grange.

An examination of the recommendations of the committee will show that its suggestion on this point is not in accord with the majority sentiment of the school patrons who expressed themselves. Evidence from the meetings seems to indicate that the demand for choice of district superintendents by popular vote is based chiefly on the desire of the people for a larger voice in the control of school affairs. Especially is this true with reference to certain powers that now reside in the hands of the district superintendents. With the wish for a larger measure of lay responsibilities in the conduct of school affairs the committee found itself in many respects in accord. It believes, however, that it has made provision for a more effective expression of lay opinion than could be secured by popular election of superintendents by associating with these officers a board representative of the people. This board will have the superintendent as its professional officer, and will have the power to pass on policies relating to the conduct of the schools.

A further factor led the committee to recommend that the district superintendent of schools be chosen by a board of education instead of by popular vote. The office of district superintendent should be put on the highest possible professional plane. Men and women should be chosen for this position because of the service they are able to render to the schools and to school patrons. It is

too important an office, and the opportunity for influence of those who hold these positions is too great to be trusted to any except those who are professionally equipped. Experience has shown that in general more capable men and women will be obtained for professional service when choice is made as a result of the deliberations of a representative board than by popular vote. Especially is this true when the board has certain administrative responsibilities connected with the work of the professional offices, such as the committee has recommended in the case of the board of education of the intermediate unit.

QUALIFICATIONS OF ELECTORS

An expression of opinion was asked regarding the question of qualifications for voting at school elections. In 4704 replies to this question, 69 percent favored leaving them as they are, and 31 percent wished to see them made the same as for the general election. As will be seen by the recommendations of the committee, it did not accept the views of the majority as expressed in the booklets. Several factors led to this different recommendation. In the replies that were sent in there was practically no expression of reasons for retention of the present system or for a change. At several meetings at which the question arose, after careful consideration of the pros and cons, the meetings went on record in favor of the change of qualifications to those which obtain at the general elections.

The committee for this reason, and after careful consideration of both aspects of the question, felt that for rural communities of the state it would be desirable to recommend the change that has been made a part of this report.

MEANS OF IMPROVING SCHOOLS

The opportunity that was given to offer suggestions for the improvement of the schools did not bring nearly as general a response as most of the other questions. There were many good suggestions offered, but the variety was so great that space will not permit reporting them in detail. Some of the more common suggestions advanced were: More "practical" courses of study, better trained

teachers, and more emphasis on the fundamental subjects. There was, however, a fair proportion who desired to see more attention given to such subjects as music and drawing. The suggestions that are offered in the recommendations regarding courses of study and examinations, the committee believes, will result in greater flexibility in the courses of instruction than generally obtains at present, and make possible the attainment of most of the suggestions offered by patrons.

CONSOLIDATION

There was very general interest in the questions relating to consolidation, as is shown by the fact that 91 percent of the persons answering expressed themselves on this phase. This is the largest percentage of answers that was obtained on any question. Of those reporting, 69 percent were opposed to consolidation and 31 percent favored it for their communities. In some instances the approvals were qualified by certain reservations. It was felt that some of the views expressed on this question were of sufficient interest to justify their inclusion in this report.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST CONSOLIDATION.—“The distance from the school center would be too great for children to walk or to wait in the cold for transportation. I do not favor the consolidation of *our* school anyway.”

“Consolidation of schools, I believe, would result in many farmers leaving their farms and going to the city. Many parents object to sending their children far away from home to attend school. Why not make our rural schools *better* schools, but leave them as our district centers? There are, I believe, a few cases where consolidation would be a benefit. For example, schools where there are only one, two, or even three children. In most cases these children can be sent to a nearby district with less expense and better results, as very *good* teachers will not consent to teach such schools where there are only two or three pupils. I do not think the good rural school having good support and co-operation of the tax-payers should be consolidated.”

“Distance is too far for the majority of students to attend. No advantage except better equipment to work with. Feel we

might better take that extra tax money we would have to pay and improve our own rural school. Find, on conversation with parents, that there is hardly more than one out of ten favoring consolidation. The only advantage gained is that more teachers have charge of the grades and therefore children perhaps receive more attention during school hours."

"We don't want consolidation for schools. We can see no advantage."

"The one great and apparently insurmountable difficulty with consolidation is the long tramp or ride—one word, *transportation*—would solve the problem for three-fourths of its opponents. The only advantage is the more thorough instruction possible—except the commercial advantage to the district favored with a fine new school at slight expense. If transportation under mature, trustworthy drivers could be secured at reasonable cost, consolidation might appeal to more. Those who favor consolidation now are those who have no children to send."

"Because it requires the children to be carried so far in cold weather we don't approve of consolidation. The advantage might be that there would be fewer schools, then better teachers could be selected, also more children would be under one uniform system. For the sake of the small children, if there are plenty of teachers, we prefer non-consolidation."

"Distance is the main objection with us. If our population were not so scattered, it would have some advantages. We do not favor consolidation at present. We think the advantage in consolidation is outweighed by the disadvantage of overcoming distance, if country people are in earnest for a good home school. We think consolidation might work well if it could be optional where it seems advisable. We think a law could be elastic enough to do that."

"Our children live on many roads, and they would be hard to collect. In fact, we have enough pupils for a teacher, a good place to put one, and men competent to manage a school, if we could have the right kind of teacher. We, of course, would be obliged to help build central schools. One advantage would be the oversight of a

professor, which we have noticed does not always mean a good school. We do not favor consolidation."

FAVORABLE TO CONSOLIDATION.—"No objection except great distance in a few cases. There are many advantages to be gained by consolidation of school. The larger school always has a better system of grading, better equipment, usually can and does hire better teachers, has more effective and modern methods of teaching, and has better heating and ventilating systems than the small one-room school building. On the whole, the child is happier, healthier, and receives a better education as a result of consolidation."

"I am heart and soul in favor of consolidation. It invariably means a little more school tax to the property-holder whose district has been consolidated with a larger one, but the advantages to the child are so great that he ought to be glad to pay it."

"Not any objection. Some schools are so very small that both teacher and pupils lose interest in the work. It would save money to consolidate, as *all* tax-payers would have the privilege of helping to educate the children and the taxes are equalized to an extent."

FAVORABLE REPLIES WITH RESERVATIONS.—"The objection to consolidation is the fact that it has been indiscriminately forced upon localities without their consent, many times proving a serious inconvenience to both pupils and parents without results that would warrant it. Causes for this may be physical features of the surrounding country and consequent inconvenience of attendance by pupils. Advantages are, a larger school, better equipped, less number of teachers, but better trained and better paid, a wider list of subjects to choose from. On basis of these facts in some cases, we believe consolidation would be of benefit to some localities of our country, but in many others absolutely impossible. In the latter cases we object to any change in district lines. Should it be feasible to close a certain school for one or more seasons, the right to again open their school should be at the discretion of the voters of each district."

"I am opposed to enforced consolidation. Let the people decide for themselves this important question. If enforced consolidation were resorted to, it will have a tendency to make less salable all places remote from the school center, and in time those outlying

farms will be abandoned farms. I favor the people's voluntary consolidation, as we could have larger, better graded schools."

"No objection to community consolidation. It is hoped better teachers would be secured. Community but not township consolidation."

"No objections if new districts are properly laid out and proper means of transportation are provided. Do not always follow town lines in making the consolidations."

"Except in a few cases, I do *not* favor consolidation. However, to relieve the one-teacher school of a multiplicity of classes, I would have all above the sixth grade sent to a school of more than one teacher, and when the distance is too far to walk, have them conveyed at public expense."

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

In general, the replies regarding teachers favored mature and well-trained teachers who make their home in the district in which they teach. In the meetings there was a pronounced sentiment for a more adequately prepared teaching staff for the rural schools. The importance of this cannot be overemphasized, and in its recommendations the committee has offered some suggestions that it believes will in time provide the country schools with a well-prepared teaching force. The work and responsibilities of a teacher in a one-teacher school are heavy. It is a more difficult position than that of teacher in the graded school system. In these schools should be found a fair proportion of the most capable teachers of the state.

The difficulty that teachers experience in many districts in securing proper living conditions is proving a serious obstacle to country districts in their efforts to secure strong teachers. There is undoubtedly need in many districts for giving serious consideration to providing proper living conditions for the teachers.

SCHOOL SUPPORT

The replies to questions regarding school support and the inequalities of taxation under the present system were not so common as for most of the questions. In general, there was agreement to

the idea that the present system is unfair, but the number of constructive suggestions was not large. The general opinion was favorable to a change, but the persons answering felt that they were not in position to make helpful suggestions. A few answers that are fairly representative of the views of those who favored a change are given:

"We can see this is unfair, but are not prepared to make suggestions on short notice. The tax from public utilities should be equalized, but, of course, it would mean more machinery. We do think weak districts should receive more public support and be allowed the option of consolidation under proper regulation."

"Taxes received from railroads and other public utilities should be turned over to the county and distributed proportionately among the various districts in that county."

"I believe the law that was repealed a few years ago was better than the present law. That law was not in effect long enough to give it a fair trial. It provided for the taxing of a whole township for the maintenance of the schools in the township, and in that way all taxes on railroads, etc., benefited every school district in the township."

"In district No. 2, town of Callicoon, the tax-rate this year is nearly 4 cents, while an adjoining district, that sends all its pupils to the former school, escapes paying a school-tax. This is not fair. Provisions should be made by the department whereby the smaller districts help to defray the school expenses. Perhaps this could be done by consolidation or by forming school units."

"This body favors a larger unit of taxation, preferably the town. It also believes that the unit for disbursing the money should be the same as that of taxation."

It would not be fair to leave the reader with the impression that all replies were in accord with those quoted. A small minority held different views, and a few of these follow:

"Leave taxation as it is."

"The ones that are lucky are not to blame for some one else's misfortune."

"Think it should remain as it is now, for we have losses near the railroads which we have to stand many times with stock."

The sentiment expressed at the meetings that have been held indicates that patrons generally feel that the inequalities in taxation that exist at present should be remedied, if possible. School support was one of the most difficult questions the committee had to face. There is no phase of this report to which more serious consideration has been given. The recommendations are made with a feeling that they will, if adopted, put the whole question of support of rural schools upon a very much more equitable basis than now obtains.

LETTERS FROM SCHOOL PATRONS

Since the committee began its work, and especially since portions of its tentative recommendations have been made public, a number of very suggestive letters have been sent to it. Some of these are offered as further evidence of the attitude of farm people regarding the rural school conditions in the state. Permission has been obtained to publish these letters, but the names of the writers are withheld. The originals are in possession of the committee, and the writers are known to be farmers and farmers' wives.

"A writer in *The American Agriculturist* announces that you, as chairman of the Committee of Twenty-one, have outlined a tentative plan for rural school improvement which includes the retention of the district school and the district school trustee, or local self-government.

"This is education week. I wish to direct your thoughtful attention to the fact that the unjust contract system now practised in most of the townships in eastern New York is the result of the district system, or local self-government. Rural parents are not so blind to their children's interests that they approve a plan which closes their own school and compels their children's attendance at a school two or three miles away without transportation, where the equipment is as meager and the conditions as unsatisfactory as at home. The contract system doubles the heavy handicap of the district system on farm children, and exempts hundreds of school districts in eastern New York and elsewhere from school taxation.

"Rural parents disapprove of a bastard consolidation, or consolidation without transportation, which is another result of local self-government. What arguments have the hypocrites offered

your committee in support of this plan, since they oppose a genuine and practical consolidation because rural children must ride three or four miles daily where they now walk?

"Rural parents are not so indifferent to the future of their children that they condone a system due to the indirect influence of local self-government which licenses rural teachers having the minimum qualifications.

"This is education week. We have been invited to give special attention on this occasion to the needs of the public schools. I believe that school improvement is impossible so long as the district system and the district trustee are retained. In the hill districts of eastern New York not more than one trustee in a half-dozen could pass a seventh-grade examination in his own school. Some would lose their citizenship if the literacy test were applicable.

"The district trustee is alone responsible for the outrageous sanitary conditions that surround the rural school. In one case that came under my observation, where a district school had obtained drinking-water from a farm-house well two or three hundred yards away, and required a more convenient supply, the trustee moved the outhouse and dug a well within three or four yards of the site.

"This is education week, Mr. Chairman. Children are influenced by their environment. No teacher, however efficient, can instil in her pupils a love for American institutions in a dilapidated, one-room building, lighted by little, old-fashioned, checker-board window-panes and heated by a broken second-hand stove.

"The playground is a powerful factor in the physical, mental, moral, and civic development of our youth, but civic pride is not promoted on a playground 20 by 40 feet, bordered with weeds, ash-piles, two or three stunted shade trees, and an outhouse decorated with obscene pencil sketches and inscriptions and ancient mural carvings of a similar nature.

"Over these playgrounds, so called, over these disadvantages and the hateful injustice of it all, flies the flag, faded, tattered, neglected, often; and these farm boys, perhaps, must some time defend it, and if need be die for it. These conditions are not an inspiration to patriotism.

"I have mentioned only a few of the disadvantages of the district school system. There are many more of them, and each separate one would afford ample material for a longer exhortation. I have pointed out the general inefficiency of the system and its effect on rural citizenship. There remains the remedy.

"We recently witnessed the passing of a new school law and its immediate repeal. The repeal experience cannot be repeated because thinking men and women are now solidly behind the movement for a permanent revision of the school law that will eliminate local control.

"Yours, Mr. Chairman, for a new centralization law and the compulsory consolidation of schools."

"It behooves me to write to you in regard to a matter much discussed by the minority in this school district. By minority I mean the people who are educated enough to want a good teacher for the children who attend school here. For the past two years, at least, we have had an illiterate for trustee, and he appointed a man to teach who has had no high school education nor training, and who should be examined to see whether he is even fit to teach young children of the fourth and fifth grades. Said teacher is never at the school-building at 9 o'clock, from 9.15 to 9.30 being the usual time. I am wondering if he keeps his record of tardiness in his record book. He occasionally dismisses school at noon earlier than 12 o'clock—one day recently it was 11.45, and he told the children that he would give them a long time to skate on the pond nearby, also that he would put up the flag when he wanted them to return to the school-building. Some of the neighbors noticed that it was 1.30 P. M. before the teacher put up the flag and the children assembled. During that long noon intermission the teacher had taken a *nap* on the school benches, and this is one of his bad habits—others I will not speak of here.

"The trustees gave him two days off at the beginning of the hunting season, and I suppose the district has paid him the same as if he was on duty. At any rate, he does not have to make up the time at school.

"There is no use telling the superintendent about any grievance, as complaints have been sent to her before, and no notice has been

paid to them. As far as the trustee is concerned, he does not bother himself about school matters. He could not make out the tax list, but left that matter to the teacher, who made errors, one farmer being overcharged, etc.

"Last September an agent came through this section with some reference books, encyclopedia, etc., and he told the trustee that he *must* take the encyclopedia for the school, and that the superintendent wished it. The \$40 were paid, and it was the district's money. With the exception of some of the neighbors borrowing a volume or so at a time, and the young children looking at the pictures, the books are not used. They are very useful to pupils in the higher grades and high schools, but for these small children it was quite unnecessary to expend the money. The school needs a new stove, new desks and seats, and many new grade text-books and supplementaries. Some of the children have not the required books for study, but nothing is said or done about them.

"One boy of ten years stays at home the greater part of the time, but nothing is done in the matter, and 'the easiest way is the best way,' covers everything in this district.

"I could continue at length, but I know you will understand that we do want your support and need it very much. I am wondering why a trustee has everything to say, and does not consult the people in his district as to what is best for the school.

"Why cannot a 'Committee of Three' be appointed to look after our rural schools and their needs, instead of a trustee who, to my thinking, does not know what his duty is to the parents as well as the scholars? It seems to me a 'Committee of Three' from the town would be of vastly more benefit to the rural communities than a worthless trustee, of which there are so many. Or two men for a committee on rural schools would be so much better than one so-called trustee.

"Please give us good teachers, a good committee, and require that the pupils have what is required in their school-rooms that are essential to their needs, and let me say their health, most of all, *i. e.*, a clean school-room, clean school-children, and everything pertaining to a hygienic atmosphere. We pray for all these things, which are very urgent, be assured. Our district is poor for the most

part, and something has to be done and right quickly to bring the children up to the standard and in line of work in their school, so much time having been wasted. For any advice we will be more than thankful, and we hope to receive help from you, this being the earnest wish of all."

"Yours for the cause of education. Part of your plan I do not like; I say, get away from that old district system and do it quickly. I know I have not many with me, but that does not change my opinion of what should be done. Why are the trustees going to be any better collectively than individually? The law compels me to send my children to school, when, if I correctly understand the report, there is about one chance in two hundred and fifty that the school-room will be properly heated, lighted, and ventilated. Is this right? For me, I say make all the changes and make them quickly. You cannot get things much worse than they are now. As for teachers, you may have to train them, but money will get stoves, glass, etc., at any time, and what is more valuable than health or the eye-sight of our children?"

APPENDIX

ILLITERATES IN NEW YORK STATE (1920 CENSUS). DISTRIBUTION BY COUNTIES UNDER CITY, VILLAGE, AND DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS

THE Federal census of 1920 shows that thousands of persons sixteen years of age and over who cannot speak or read the English language live in the smaller communities and in the rural sections of New York state. In nearly all these communities these illiterate and non-English-speaking people are not provided the opportunity to learn English, owing to lack of local interest in their welfare and to unwillingness to appropriate money for their instruction. A district superintendent, having 50 or 60 different school districts under his supervision, finds it impossible to promote the work among so many school boards. The result is almost complete failure to make even the most elementary provision for these illiterate and non-English-speaking adults, notwithstanding the fact that most of these people are permanent residents of such communities and that in many places they own a fair proportion of the taxable property. Through this utter neglect these foreign-born people are less intelligently productive than would be the case if they had the opportunity to acquire quickly the ability to use the English language; they are less able to coöperate in community activities and in enforcement of law and order; they are less sympathetic with American principles and ideals and more likely to continue their allegiance to foreign governments or to become the easy prey to radical disturbers.

This problem of adult immigrant education, which was revealed during the recent world war as closely related to national unity and security, is not being adequately dealt with in the supervisory districts, owing to the same lack of local vision which is found wherever the small school district exists.

The size and wide-spread character of the problem in adult immigrant

TABLE 44.—FOREIGN-BORN WHITES IN NEW YORK STATE
(By Counties, Census 1920)

Name of County	Total Population	Foreign-born	
		Number	Percent
New York	2,284,103	922,080	40.4
Bronx	732,016	266,971	36.5
Kings ¹	2,018,356	659,287	32.7
Richmond	116,531	31,533	27.1
Queens	469,042	111,676	23.8
Albany	186,106	29,322	15.8
Allegany	36,842	1,465	4.0
Broome	113,610	14,601	12.9
Cattaraugus	71,323	7,196	10.1
Cayuga	65,221	9,488	14.5
Chautauqua	115,348	23,038	20.0
Chemung	65,872	5,915	9.0
Chenango	34,969	1,734	5.0
Clinton	43,898	4,010	9.1
Columbia	38,930	4,307	11.1
Cortland	29,625	2,015	6.8
Delaware	42,774	2,084	4.9
Dutchess	91,747	12,465	13.6
Erie	634,688	147,309	23.2
Essex	31,871	2,571	8.1
Franklin	43,541	4,532	10.4
Fulton	44,927	6,364	14.2
Genesee	37,976	5,313	14.0
Greene	25,796	2,033	7.9
Hamilton	3,970	341	8.6
Herkimer	64,962	11,102	17.1
Jefferson	82,250	11,373	13.8
Lewis	23,704	1,980	8.4
Livingston	36,830	4,259	11.6
Madison	39,535	3,246	8.2
Monroe	352,034	79,491	22.6
Montgomery	57,928	12,357	21.3
Nassau	126,120	25,998	20.6
Niagara	118,705	29,298	24.7
Oneida	182,833	37,185	20.3
Onondaga	241,465	41,517	17.2
Ontario	52,652	6,193	11.8
Orange	119,844	16,422	13.7
Orleans	28,619	4,444	15.5
Oswego	71,045	7,528	10.6
Otsego	46,200	2,366	5.1
Putnam	10,802	1,437	13.3
Rensselaer	113,129	16,002	14.1
Rockland	45,548	6,961	15.3
St. Lawrence	88,121	10,848	12.3
Saratoga	60,029	7,386	12.3
Schenectady	109,363	23,679	21.7
Schoharie	21,303	620	2.9
Schuyler	13,098	662	5.1
Seneca	24,735	2,932	11.9
Steuben	80,627	4,776	5.9
Suffolk	110,246	23,888	21.7
Sullivan	33,163	5,495	16.6
Tioga	24,212	1,212	5.0
Tompkins	35,285	2,660	7.5
Ulster	74,979	8,043	10.7
Warren	31,673	2,431	7.7
Washington	44,888	4,213	9.4
Wayne	48,827	6,634	13.6
Westchester	344,436	80,005	23.2
Wyoming	30,314	2,669	8.8
Yates	16,641	1,150	6.9
Totals	10,385,227	2,786,112	26.8

¹ These five counties comprise the city of Greater New York.

TABLE 45.—ILLITERATE ADULTS IN NEW YORK STATE
(By Counties, Census 1920)

Name of County	Illiterate, Twenty-one Years of Age and Over				
	Number in County	Number in Cities and Villages, 2500 Population and Over, Under Superintendent of Schools	Number in Union Free and Common School Districts Under District Superintendent		
			2500 Population and Over	Under 2500 Population	Total
New York	137,537	137,537
Bronx ¹	25,822	25,822
Kings	96,022	96,022
Richmond	3,605	3,605
Queens	12,092	12,092
Albany	5,028	4,397	..	631	631
Allegany	193	17	..	176	176
Broome	2,379	2,027	..	352	352
Cattaraugus	1,341	782	129	430	559
Cayuga	1,666	1,369	297
Chautauqua	3,679	2,851	223	605	828
Chemung	1,117	808	162	147	309
Chenango	372	178	..	194	194
Clinton	2,822	623	65	2,134	2,199
Columbia	1,275	741	19	515	534
Cortland	477	304	..	173	173
Delaware	481	..	93	388	481
Dutchess	2,613	1,590	129	894	1,023
Erie	21,147	18,928	67	2,152	2,219
Essex	1,119	1,119	1,119
Franklin	2,717	404	131	2,182	2,313
Fulton	978	653	..	325	325
Genesee	1,275	930	..	345	345
Greene	565	144	..	421	421
Hamilton	98	98	98
Herkimer	2,093	1,510	61	522	583
Jefferson	1,444	742	135	567	702
Lewis	537	..	33	504	537
Livingston	1,392	79	659	654	1,313
Madison	749	240	275	234	509
Monroe	11,402	10,750	22	630	652
Montgomery	2,594	1,979	112	503	615
Nassau	4,330	1,013	98	3,219	3,317
Niagara	4,627	4,209	88	330	418
Oneida	8,093	6,568	26	1,499	1,525
Onondaga	6,911	5,730	124	1,057	1,181
Ontario	1,086	652	..	434	434
Orange	3,675	1,915	87	1,673	1,760
Orleans	732	418	..	314	314
Oswego	1,458	1,061	..	397	397
Otsego	381	145	27	209	236
Putnam	298	298	298
Rensselaer	2,355	1,899	..	456	456
Rockland	1,300	587	100	613	713
St. Lawrence	2,819	1,133	142	1,544	1,686
Saratoga	1,809	769	164	876	1,040
Schenectady	3,858	3,552	..	306	306
Schoharie	310	310	310
Schuyler	81	..	7	74	81
Seneca	666	136	63	467	530
Steuben	1,046	566	80	400	480
Suffolk	3,173	98	383	2,692	3,075
Sullivan	658	658	658
Tioga	210	57	..	153	153
Tompkins	343	198	..	145	145
Ulster	2,284	467	148	1,669	1,817
Warren	642	360	..	282	282
Washington	1,020	371	220	429	649
Wayne	1,659	547	434	678	1,112
Westchester	12,532	9,966	795	1,771	2,566
Wyoming	267	41	12	214	226
Yates	105	43	..	62	62
Totals	415,359	369,625	5,313	40,421	45,734

¹ These five counties comprise the city of Greater New York.

education in each of the 62 counties of New York state are indicated by Table 44, compiled from the Federal census of 1920.

Table 44 shows that, in 1920, there were 2,786,112 foreign-born white persons in New York state, this number being 26.8 percent of the total population. In 15 of the 64 counties the foreign-born whites constituted 20 percent or more of the population, the proportion ranging from 20 percent in Chautauqua County to 40.4 percent in New York County (Manhattan).

Table 45 shows that in 1920 there were 415,359 illiterate persons twenty-one years of age and over in New York state, and that of this number 45,734, or 11 percent, were in common and union free school districts under district superintendents. While some of these were in the larger communities in the supervisory districts, 40,421 were in communities whose population was 2500 or less.

"Illiterates," as used in the census reports, means persons who could not write, this including practically all those who could not read. People who were literate in their native language but who could not speak English were not included in these numbers. If we were to include the literate persons who could not speak English, it is probable that it would be no exaggeration to estimate the illiterate and non-English-speaking adults in the common and union free school districts of the state as amounting to 70,000 or 80,000.

Many of these illiterate and non-English-speaking adults in the supervisory districts are known to be eager for the opportunity to learn English, but the small sums of money necessary to conduct the classes are difficult to secure. It is reasonable to believe that, with a large taxing unit, classes in elementary English and citizenship would be provided, thus furnishing equal opportunity for children and parents of foreign birth to Americanize themselves through learning English and studying American government in the public school.

SURVEY OF NEW YORK STATE RURAL SCHOOLS

THE survey was organized with the following sections and directors:

Administration and Supervision. C. H. Judd.
School Support. Harlan Updegraff.
Teachers and Courses of Study. W. C. Bagley.
School Buildings. J. E. Butterworth.
Measuring the Work of the Schools. M. E. Haggerty.
Community Relations. Mabel Carney.

The results of the studies conducted by these directors and their associates have been embodied in a series of reports. The approximate dates at which these will be available for distribution are:

- Volume I. **Rural School Survey of New York State.**
(Preliminary Report) May, 1922.
- Volume II. **Administration and Supervision.** October, 1922.
The District System. Shelby.
The Supervisory District. Brooks.
The Community Unit. Works.
Principles of Administration. Bobbitt.
The State System of Examinations. Kruse.
Health Education. Peterson.
The State Schools of Agriculture. Holton.
Junior Extension. Holton.
Summary and Recommendations. Judd.
- Volume III. **School Support.** Updegraff. August, 1922.
- Volume IV. **Teachers and Teacher Preparation.** Bagley.
September, 1922.
Elementary School Curriculum. Brim.
Community Relations. Carney.
- Volume V. **School Buildings.** Butterworth. June, 1922.
- Volume VI. **The Educational Product.** Haggerty. July, 1922.
- Volume VII. **The Rural High Schools.** Ferriss. August, 1922.
(The administrative features of the high school were studied in coöperation with Dr. Judd, while teachers and curricula were developed under the general direction of Dr. Bagley.)
- Volume VIII. **Vocational Education.** Eaton. July, 1922.
(Prepared under the direction of Dr. Bagley.)

These volumes may be obtained at seventy-five cents each, post-paid, except Volume II, on Administration and Supervision, which will be one dollar. Only a limited edition will be printed and those wishing to make certain of securing copies may place their orders at any time.

*Joint Committee on Rural Schools,
Ithaca, N. Y.*



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